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Semiannual Technical Summary

1 October 1990 — 31 March 1991



Kjeller, May 1991

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Abstract

This Semiannual Technical Summary describes the operation, maintenance and research activities at the Norwegian Seismic Array (NORSAR), the Norwegian Regional Seismic Array (NORESS) and the Arctic Regional Seismic Array (ARCESS) for the period 1 October 1990 – 31 March 1991. Statistics are also presented for additional seismic stations, which through cooperative agreements with institutions in the host countries provide continuous data to the NORSAR Data Processing Center (NPDC). These stations comprise the Finnish Experimental Seismic Array (FINESA), the German Experimental Seismic Array (GERESS), and two 3-component stations in Poland: Ksiaz and Stary Folwark. This Semiannual Report also presents statistics from operation of the Intelligent Monitoring System (IMS). The IMS has been operated in an experimental mode using NORESS and ARCESS data, and the performance has been very satisfactory.

The NORSAR Detection Processing system has been operated throughout the period with an average uptime of 98.6% as compared to 98.0% for the previous reporting period. A total of 1837 seismic events have been reported in the NORSAR monthly seismic bulletin. The performance of the continuous alarm system and the automatic bulletin transfer by telex to AFTAC has been satisfactory. A system for direct retrieval of NORSAR waveform data through an X.25 connection has been implemented, and has been tested successfully for acquiring such data by AFTAC. Processing of requests for full NORSAR/NORESS data on magnetic tapes has progressed according to established schedules.

On-line detection processing and data recording at the NORSAR Data Processing Center (NDPC) of NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA data have been conducted throughout the period, with an average uptime of 99.2% for NORESS, 98.4% for ARCESS and 98.9% for FINESA. The Intelligent Monitoring System was installed at NORSAR in December 1989 and has been operated experimentally since 1 January 1990. Results of the IMS analysis for the reporting period are given.

There have been no modifications made to the NORSAR data acquisition system. The process of evaluating and testing technical options for refurbishment of the array is continuing.

The routine detection processing of NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA is running satisfactorily on each of the arrays' SUN-3/280 data acquisition systems. The routine processing of FINESA data at NORSAR is similar to what is done in Helsinki. GERESS data acquisition and detection processing has been conducted in an experimental mode during the period, in a way similar to what is done in Bochum.

Maintenance activities in the period comprise preventive/corrective maintenance in connection with all the NORSAR subarrays, NORESS and ARCESS. In addition, the maintenance center has been involved with occasional maintenance of equipment for FINESA and preparatory work in connection with the two stations in Poland. Other activities involved testing of the NORSAR communications systems.

We have continued our work aimed at evaluating the stability of RMS Lg for yield estimation purposes. We have carried out a detailed RMS Lg analysis of NORSAR recordings of Novaya Zemlya underground explosions, and in addition conducted similar analysis of Gräfenberg (GRF) array recordings (available after 1976). The results show a tight clustering in M(Lg) of 13 NORSAR-recorded explosions after 1976, and GRF data of the 27 Sep 78 explosion, for which no NORSAR data are available, indicate that this event is of similar size. The correspondence between M(Lg) for NORSAR vs GRF is excellent, with an orthogonal standard deviation of only 0.02-0.03 magnitude units. This correspondence fully matches the excellent results previously obtained for Semipalatinsk explosions, and confirms the promise of RMS Lg as a stable estimator of relative yields.

The concept of threshold monitoring, introduced by Ringdal and Kværna, is a method of monitoring the seismic amplitude levels for the purpose of using this information to assess the largest size of events that might go undetected by a given network. In an effort to demonstrate the capabilities of this threshold monitoring technique, we have conducted a simulation experiment, which has involved down-scaling the recorded signals of the 24 October 1990 Novaya Zemlya explosion ($m_b = 5.6$) by a factor of 1000 (i.e., 3 orders of magnitude). The resulting NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA traces of this " $m_b = 2.6$ event" were added at hourly intervals to the actual recordings for a full data day, and the threshold monitor was then applied. The results demonstrated that every one of these 24 "events" were clearly identifiable on the threshold trace. While this clearly gives a very simplified picture, it serves to document the excellent monitoring potential of these three arrays for the Novaya Zemlya test site.

A significant part of our research effort has been directed toward the further development of European high frequency arrays and high quality three-component stations. The aim has been to provide for continuous transmission of data (by satellite or land line) to NDPC and integration of this data stream into the input base for the Intelligent Monitoring System (IMS). These efforts have proceeded satisfactorily. During the reporting period, particular emphasis has been placed upon optimizing the GERESS beam deployment (in cooperation with Ruhr University scientists) and completing the integration into the network of the KSP and SFP stations in Poland. All of these network stations are scheduled for participation in the 1991 GSETT-2 experiment.

The multichannel statistical data processing algorithms described in previous NORSAR Semiannual Technical summaries have now been integrated into the Event Processor system currently in operation at NORSAR. A description of the program and some of the recent results are provided. At present, these algorithms are used only experimentally, in an offline fashion, but plans to start testing them in an operational environment have been made.

Results are presented from a two-dimensional finite difference approach to modeling seismic wave propagation in the crust. These results are based on a cooperative effort with scientists at the IBM Bergen Scientific Centre. In the generation of synthetic seismograms, a homogeneous crust of thickness 30 km and $P_{vel}=6.5$ km/sec has been used as a basis, with options for perturbation comprising multilayering, piece-wise linear velocity gradients as well as large-scale discontinuities. Randomized scattering effects have so far not been considered. It appears that the synthetics generate all major phases, but with a relatively weak body-wave coda generation compared to real seismograms. The introduction of scatterers is expected to be of importance in remedying this problem, and will be the subject of future investigations.

An overview is presented of results related to determining the crustal thicknesses in Fennoscandia. A detailed contour map (2 km contour intervals) has been developed for the entire region. In view of the extrensive sediment deposits, a map of the crystalline crustal thicknesses is also presented for the SW part of the area. In general, the oldest parts of the Baltic Shield exhibit the greatest crustal thicknesses (in some areas exceeding 50 km). In the offshore Norway areas, the crystalline thicknesses are of the order of 15-20 km, while the sedimentary overburdens can exceed 10 km. An interesting observation is that the Moho depth variation appears to have a counterpart in the spatial distribution of earthquakes in the Fennoscandian region.

In the current IMS implementation of the threshold monitoring method, a limited number of specific target sites are monitored. These sites include several mines in Scandinavia and Western Russia, along with the Novay Temlya and Semipalatinsk nuclear test sites. We have now initiated a starty to determine how this method could be applied to monitoring more ϵ densive geographical regions. The key to achieving this is to develop "generic" relations for attenuation and magnitude correction factors for seismic phases of interest, and to deploy a sufficient number of beams to ensure adequate coverage. So far, we have developed preliminary relations and correction factors for the Pn and Lg phases. These "generic" relations are based upon systematic analysis of several hundred phase observations of regional events in various geographical areas. The results are applicable to Northern Europe and adjacent regions. Factors that remain to be assessed in detail include the effect of uncertainties in reference M_L magnitudes for the events in the data base and the effect of signal loss in the array beamforming.

Using the "generic" amplitude relations described above, we have generated a very extensive beam set for a short test interval using NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA data. The results of TM processing for this time period, which are presented in the form of regional threshold maps, are very encouraging, and indicate that this is indeed a potentially very useful extension of the concept. However, an "operational" implementation might require computer processing capacity of about an order of magnitude greater than is currently available on a Sun Workstation (type Sparc station 1).

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NORSAR Contribution No. 444

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1 Summary

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2 NORSAR Operation

2.1 Detection Processor (DP) operation

There have been 48 breaks in the otherwise continuous operation of the NOR-SAR online system within the current 6-month reporting interval. The uptime percentage for the period is 98.6 as compared to 98.0 for the previous period.

Fig. 2.1.1 and the accompanying Table 2.1.1 both show the daily DP downtime for the days between 1 October 1990 and 31 March 1991. The monthly recording times and percentages are given in Table 2.1.2.

The breaks can be grouped as follows:

a)	Hardware failure	8
b)	Stops related to program work or error	2
c)	Hardware maintenance stops	6
d)	Power jumps and breaks	0
e)	TOD error correction	0
f)	Communication lines	32

The total downtime for the period was 86 hours and 3 minutes. The mean-time-between-failures (MTBF) was 4.1 days, as compared to 3.2 for the previous period.

J. Torstveit

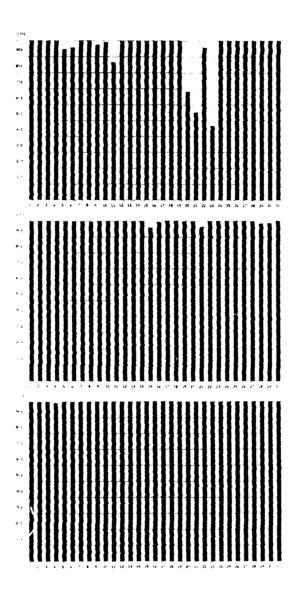


Fig. 2.1.1 Detection Processor downtime for October (top), November (middle) and December (bottom) 1990.

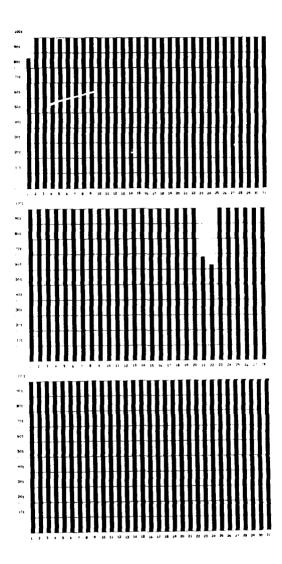


Fig. 2.1.1 Detection Processor downtime for January (top), February (middle) and March (bottom) 1991.

Date	Time	Cause
5 Oct	0032-0146	Hardware failure NDPC
6 Oct	1656-1758	Hardware failure NDPC
9 Oct	1216-1252	Hardware failure NDPC
10 Oct	1304-1314	Hardware failure NDPC
11 Oct	0042-0144	Hardware failure NDPC
11 Oct	0754-1006	Hardware maintenance NDPC
20 Oct	1624~	Hardware failure NDPC
21 Oct	-1043	Hardware failure NDPC
22 Oct	2300-	Hardware failure NDPC
23 Oct	-1245	Hardware failure NDPC
16 Nov	0855-0903	Hardware maintenance NDPC
21 Nov	1801-1850	Hardware failure NDPC
28 Nov	0120-0140	Operator error NDPC
29 Nov	1515-1534	Hardware failure NDPC
4 Dec	1212-1223	Hardware maintenance NDPC
i Jan	1037-1351	Software work (new year)
3 Jan	1017-1023	Hardware maintenance NDPC
21 Feb	1620-	Hardware failure NDPC
22 Feb	-0855	Hardware failure NDPC

Table 2.1.1 The major downtimes in the period 1 October 1990 31 March 1991.

Month	DP Uptime Hours	DP Uptime %	No. of DP Breaks	No. of Days with Breaks	DP MTBF* (days)
OCT 90	705.52	94.83	12	10	2.3
NOV 90	717.58	99.61	11	8	2.5
DEC 90	743.55	99.96	4	4	6.2
JAN 91	740.33	99.51	7	7	3.9
FEB 91	655.08	97.48	11	7	2.3
MAR 91	719.88	99.98	3	3	7.5
		98.56	48	39	4.1

^{*}Mean-time-between-failures \approx total uptime/no. of up intervals.

Table 2.1.2 Online system performance, 1 October 1990 - 31 March 1991.

2.2 Array communications

General

Table 2.2.1 reflects the performance of the communications system throughout the reporting period.

The most common events which have affected the NORSAR array have been: damaged communications cables, loss of subarray power, irregularities in the NTA transmission systems and incorrect line level.

Detailed summary

October (weeks 40-44), 1.10-4.11.90

01A was affected by a bad communications cable (week 44). 01B was affected by a communications cable damaged by excavation (weeks 40–41). Also the 02C communications cable was affected for the same reason (week 46). In addition we had sync problems (week 44) in connection with 02B, 02C and 06C.

November (weeks 45-48), 5.11-2.12.90

01A resumed operation 6 November. 01B was affected approximately 6 hours week 45, cause not stated. 02C resumed operation 20 November after communications cable repair by NTA/Hamar. 04C was affected 12, 21 and 28 November in connection with an irregularity between Hamar and Elverum, including a change to spare transmission equipment. 06C was affected weeks 45, 45 and 47, reason unknown.

December (weeks 49-52), 3-30.12.90

03C and 06C were affected during this period; 03C weeks 49 and 52, 06C weeks 51 and 52. In order to improve the 03C performance NTA/Lillestrøm raised the level towards Kjeller by 3.5 dBm. 06C resumed operation after a Modcomp restart 27 December.

January (weeks 1-5), 31.12.90 3.1.91

Week 1 three subarrays were affected: 02B 3 January in connection with a scheduled movement to another transmission group, 4.5 January due to power failure: 02C 4 January and 03C 4.5 January, probably caused by interruption related to NTA equipment. In Week 2 (8 January) 02C data disappeared. According to NTA/Lillestrom a cable was damaged in connection with roadwork. On 10 January the cable was repaired. In Week 3 (18 January) power to 02B again failed. After repair and replacement of the main fuses, the SLEM was finally reset 23 January. The subarray then again delivered data. 03C lost synchronization 23 January. After a Modcomp restart, sync was again

established.

February (weeks 6-9), 4.2-3.3.91

In this period 4 subarrays were affected: 02B, 02C week 9; 03C weeks 7 and 9; and finally 06C weeks 7, 8 and 9. There were short interruptions in NTA transmission equipment/lines, which again resulted in sync problems.

March (weeks 10-13), 4-31.3.91

The subarrays 02B, 02C and 06C were affected 1 March, and 03C on 3 March. All were resynchronized 4 March after a Modcomp restart. A communications cable damaged by an excavation 4 March resulted in loss of data from subarray 03C. 5 March the cable was repaired.

O.A. Hansen

Sub-	Oct 90 (5)	Nov 90 $\overline{(4)}$	Dec 90 (4)	Jan 91 (5)	Feb 91 (4)	Mar 91 (4)	Average
arrays	1.10-4.11	5.11-2.12	3-30.12	31.12.90-3.2.91	4.2-3.3	4-31.3	1/2 year
01A	1)*0.0019	45*0.0030	0.0006	0.0006	0.0009	0.0007	0.004
01B	2)*0.0040	0.896	0.001	0.023	0.0008	17*0.002	0.160
02B	*0.364	0.025	0.011	101*0.004	$^{13)*}0.010$	*0.458	0.145
02C	3)*0.0002	51*0.0002	0.0009	11)*0.447	14)*0.003	*0.448	0.150
03C	0.008	0.004	***0.002	$^{12)*}0.002$	15)*0.027	*0.448	0.081
04C	0.003	6)*1 197	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.200
06C	*0.011	7)*2.398	9)*0.0006	0.003	16)*0.0007	*0.343	0.459
AVER	0.063	0.646	0.002	0.068	0.006	0.243	0.171

^{*}See Section 2.2 regarding figures preceded by an asterisk.

Figures representing error rate (in per cent) preceded by a number 1), 2), etc., are related to legend below.

1),11),12)

Average 4 weeks (40-43/90), (1-5/91)

2),4),7),13),14),17)

Average 3 weeks (42-44,46-48/90), (6-8,10-13/91)

3),6),8),9),10),15)

Average 2 weeks (41-42,45-47,49-51/90), (2,5.8/91)

5),16)

Average 1 week (48/90), (6/91)

Table 2.2.1 Communications performance. The numbers represent error rates in per cent based on total transmitted frames/week (1 October 1990 - 31 March 1991).

2.3 Event detection operation

In Table 2.3.1 some monthly statistics of the Detection and Event Processor operation are given. The table lists the total number of detections (DPX) triggered by the on-line detector, the total number of detections processed by the automatic event processor (EPX) and the total number of events accepted after analyst review (teleseismic phases, core phases and total).

	Total	Total	иссер	ted events		
	DPX	EPX	P-phases	Core phases	Sum	Daily
Oct 90	11300	1381	211	70	281	9.1
Nov 90	12225	1411	241	64	305	10.2
Dec 90	14158	1471	283	62	345	11.1
Jan 91	12849	1354	206	59	265	8.5
Feb 91	12025	1497	204	43	247	8.8
Mar 91	11200	1409	329	65	394	12.7
			1474	363	1837	10.1

Table 2.3.1. Detection and Event Processor statistics, I October 1990 - 31 March 1991.

B. Paulsen

3 Operation of Regional Arrays

3.1 Recording of NORESS data at NDPC, Kjeller

Table 3.1.1 lists the main outage times and reasons, and as can be seen the main reasons for the outages are hardware failure at the HUB and software failure at NDPC.

The average recording time was 99.2% as compared to 92.9% for the previous period.

D	ate	Time	Cause

12	Oct	0910-0914	Service at HUB
12	Oct	1025-1033	Service at HUB
18	Oct	0103-0145	Timing failure HUB
19	Oct	0058-0151	Timing failure HUB
22	Oct	1238-1259	Service at HUB
1	Nov	0850-0911	Line failure
14	Nov	0840-0845	Service at HUB
16	Nov	0037-0045	Line failure
21	Nov	2034-2104	Software failure
22	Nov	0600-0608	Software failure
23	Nov	2316-2352	Software failure
24	Nov	0921-0943	Software failure
26	Nov	2029-2216	Software failure
26	Nov	2300-	Software failure
27	Nov	-0621	Software failure
28	Nov	1159-1354	Fower failure HUB
28	Nov	1430-1711	Power failure HUB
3	Dec	0810-0824	Hardware failure NDPC
8	Dec	2200-2205	Software failure
18	Dec	0855-1029	Line failure
24	Dec	0534-0549	Line failure
31	Dec	2035-2045	Line failure
9	Jan	1045-1112	Service at HUB
11	Jan	1225~1228	Service at HUB

20	Jan	2101-2105	Line failure
20	Jan	2112-2117	Line failure
20	Jan	2132-2135	Line failure
6	Feb	2238-2242	Line failure
2	Mar	0100-1325	Software failure

Table 3.1.1. Interruptions in recording of NORESS data at NDPC, 1 October 1990 - 31 March 1991.

Monthly uptimes for the NORESS on-line data recording task, taking into account all factors (field installations, transmissions line, data center operation) affecting this task were as follows:

October : 99.8%
November : 97.8%
December : 99.6%
January : 99.9%
February : 100.0%
March : 98.4%

Fig. 3.1.1 shows the uptime for the data recording task, or equivalently, the availability of NORESS data in our tape archive, on a day-by-day basis, for the reporting period.

J. Torstveit

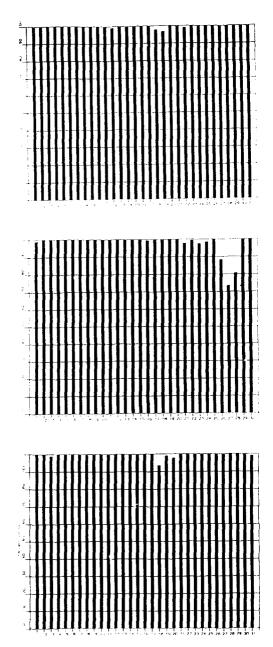


Fig. 3.1.1. NORESS data recording uptime for October (top), November (middle) and December (bottom) 1990.

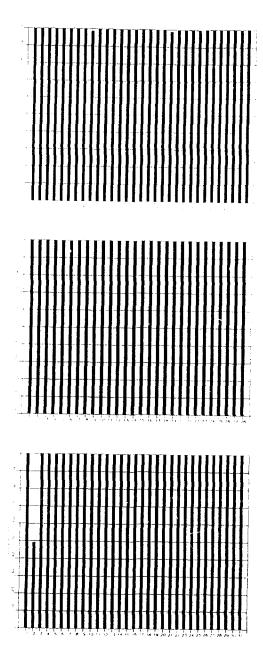


Fig. 3.1.1. (cont.) NORESS data recording uptime for January (top), February (middle) and March (bottom) 1991.

3.2 Recording of ARCESS data at NDPC, Kjeller

The main reasons causing most of the ARCESS outage in the period are: Hardware failure at NDPC and line failure. Outage intervals are listed in Table 3.2.1.

The average recording time was 98.4% as compared to 95.6% for the previous period.

Da	ate	Time	Cause
5	Oct	0413-0438	Power break HUB
5	Oct	0456-0523	Power break HUB
5	Oct	0629-0723	Power break HUB
5	Oct	1321-1620	Instaling UPS at HUB
5	Oct	2038-2236	Instaling UPS at HUB
7	0ct	0743-0756	Software failure
10	Oct	0810-0911	Software failure
10	Oct	2138-2220	Software failure
13	Oct	1410-1511	Software failure
14	Oct	1120-1232	Software failure
15	Oct	1100-1133	Software failure
19	Oct	1603-1644	Software failure
22	Oct	1333-1534	Hardware failure
23	Oct	1355-1406	Software failure
25	Oct	0650-0834	Software failure
25	Oct	1555-1606	Software failure
9	Nov	0034-0107	Software failure
10	Nov	1900-1929	Software failure
13	Dec	0315-	Line failure
14	Dec	-1845	Line failure
31	Dec	2310-	Line failure
1	Jan	-0001	Line failure
7	Feb	0952-1025	Hardware failure
14	Feb	2141-2238	Hardware failure
16	Feb	0026-0130	Hardware failure
17	Feb	1144-1149	Hardware failure
17	Feb	1602-1657	Hardware failure

17	Feb	1708-1738	Hardware	failure
18	Feb	1259-1311	Hardware	maintenance
19	Feb	1031-1038	${\tt Hardware}$	failure
19	Feb	1234-1238	Hardware	failure
19	Feb	1451-1507	${\tt Hardware}$	failure
19	Feb	1556-1759	${\tt Hardware}$	failure
19	Feb	1839-1910	Hardware	failure
21	Feb	1725-1741	${\tt Hardware}$	failure
21	Feb	2300-	${\tt Hardware}$	failure
22	Feb	-0721	${\tt Hatdware}$	failure
22	Feb	1008-1012	Hardware	failure
22	Feb	1032-1058	Hardware	failure
22	Feb	1113-1123	${\tt Hardware}$	failure
22	Feb	1144-1155	Hardware	failure
23	Feb	0825-0832	Hardware	failure
26	Feb	0715-0736	Hardware	maintenance
6	Mar	1142-1209	Software	maintenance
6	Mar	1214-1245	Software	maintenance

Table 3.2.1. The main interruptions in recording of ARCESS data at NDPC, 1 October 1990 - 31 March 1991.

Monthly uptimes for the ARCESS on-line data recording task, taking into account all factors (field installations, transmissions line, data center operation) affecting this task were as follows:

October : 98.2% November : 99.9% December : 94.6% January : 100.0% February : 98.2% March : 99.9%

Fig. 3.2.1 shows the uptime for the data recording task, or equivalently, the availability of ARCESS data in our tape archive, on a day-by-day basis, for the reporting period.

J. Torstveit

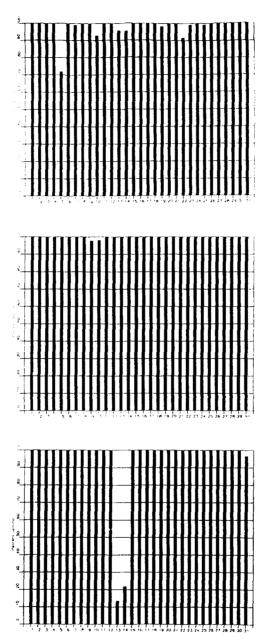


Fig. 3.2.1. ARCESS data recording uptime for October (top), November (middle) and December (bottom) 1990.

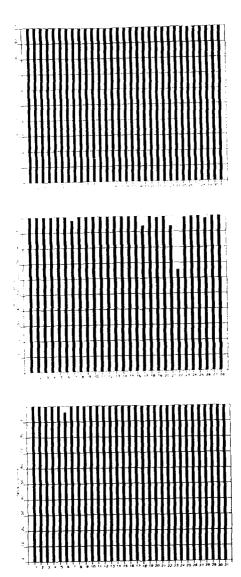


Fig. 3.2.1. (cont.) ARCESS data recording uptime for January (top), February (middle) and March (bottom) 1991.

3.3 Recording of FINESA data at NDPC, Kjeller

The main reason for downtime of the FINESA array in the period are line failure, either between Norsar and Helsinki or between Helsinki and the field installation.

The average recording time was 98.9% as compared to 39.0% for the previous period.

D:	ate	Time	Cause	
3	Oct	0823-0844	Line failure	
		0902-0907	Line failure	
	Oct		Line failure	
	Oct		Line failure	
	Oct		Line failure	
15	Oct		Line failure	
27	Oct	0241-0340	Line failure	
31	Oct	2322-	Line failure	
1	Nov	-0530	Line failure	
10	Nov	1750-1757	Line failure	
12	Nov	1014-1104	Line failure	
13	Nov	0753-0757	Line failure	
19	Nov	2215-2230	Line failure	
20	Nov	0029-0045	Line failure	
19	Dec	2215-2230	Line failure	
20	Dec	0029-0045	Line failure	
11	Jan	0651-0705	Line failure	
16	Jan	1233-1257	Line failure	
19	Jan	0810-0817	Line failure	
19	Jan	0846-0853	Line failure	
20	Jan	2306-	Line failure	
21	Jan	-0118	Line failure	
24	Jan	0119-0744	Line failure	
13	Feb	0832-0849	Line failure	
25	Feb	1240-1245	Line failure	
7	Mar	2010-2017	Line failure	
12	Mar	2232-2238	Line failure	
24	Mar	1006-1200	Hardware failure	

26	Mar	0920-1739	Hardware	failure
27	Mar	0624-0757	Hardware	failure
27	Mar	1043-1349	Hardware	maintenance

Table 3.3.1 The main interruptions in recording of FINESA data at NDPC, 1 October 1990 - 31 March 1991,

Monthly uptimes for the FINESA on-line data recording task, taking into account all factors (field installations, transmissions line, data center operation) affecting this task were as follows:

October	:	97.0%
November	:	99.8%
December	:	99.9%
January	:	98.7%
February	:	99.9%
March	•	97.8%

Fig. 3.3.1 shows the uptime for the data recording task, or equivalently, the availability of FINESA data in our tape archive, on a day-by-day basis, for the reporting period.

J. Torstveit

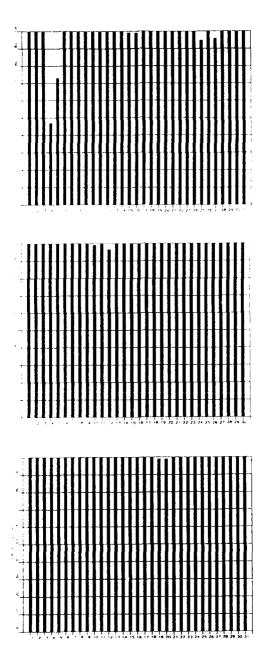


Fig. 3.3.1. FINESA data recording uptime for October (top), November (middle) and December (bottom) 1990.

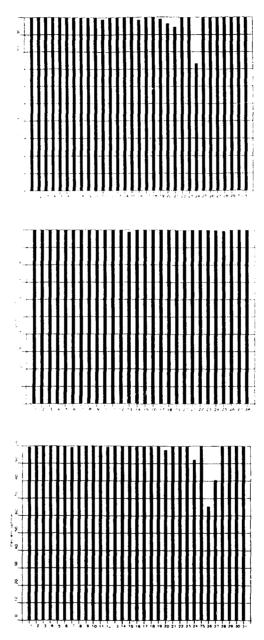


Fig. 3.3.1. (cont.) FINESA data recording uptime for January (top), February (middle) and March (bottom) 1991.

3.4 Event detection operation

This section reports on results from simple one-array automatic processing using signal processing recipes and the 'ronap' recipes for the ep program, as described in NORSAR Sci. Rep. No. 2-88/89.

IMS results are reported in Section 3.5.

NORESS detections

The number of detections (phases) reported during day 274, 1990, through day 090, 1991, was 39990, giving an average of 220 detections per processed day (182 days processed).

Table 3.4.1 shows daily and hourly distribution of detections for NORESS.

Events automatically located by NORESS

During days 274, 1990, through 090, 1991, 2298 local and regional events were located by NORESS, based on automatic association of P- and S-type arrivals. This gives an average of 12.6 events per processed day (182 days processed). 58 % of these events are within 300 km, and 87 % of these events are within 1000 km.

ARCESS detections

The number of detections (phases) reported during day 274, 1990, through day 090, 1991, was 64359, giving an average of 354 detections per processed day (182 days processed).

Table 3.4.2 shows daily and hourly distribution of detections for ARCESS.

Events automatically located by ARCESS

During days 274, 1991, through 090, 1991, 3446 local and regional events were located by ARCESS, based on automatic association of P- and S-type arrivals. This gives an average of 18.9 events per processed day (182 days processed). 53 % of these events are within 300 km, and 86 % of these events are within 1000 km.

FINESA detections

The number of detections (phases) reported during day 274, 1990, through day 090, 1991, was 60547, giving an average of 333 detections per processed day (182 days processed).

Table 3.4.3 shows daily and hourly distribution of detections for FINESA.

Events automatically located by FINESA

During days 274, 1990, through 090, 1991, 3838 local and regional events were located by FINESA, based on automatic association of P and S type arrivals. This gives an average of 21.1 events per processed day (182 days processed). 72 % of these events are within 300 km, and 88 % of these events are within 1000 km.

GERESS detections

The number of detections (phases) reported during day 274, 1990, through day 090, 1991, was 21480, giving an average of 185 detections per processed day (116 days processed).

Table 3.4.4 shows daily and hearly distribution of detections for GERESS.

Events automatically located by GERESS

During days 292, 1990, through 090, 1991, (18) local and regional events were located by GERESS, based on automatic association of P and S-type arrivals. This gives an average of 10.7 events per processed day '110 days processed), 68 % of these events are within 300 km, and 83 % of these events are within 1000 km.

J. Fyen

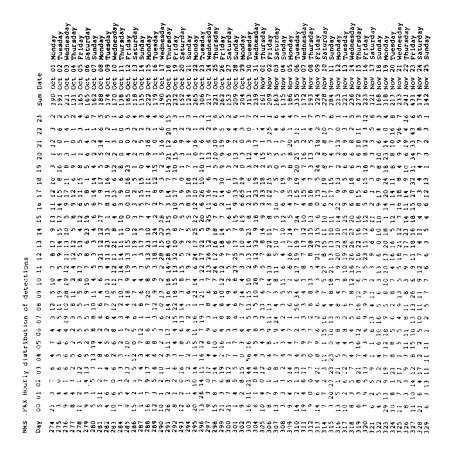


Table 3.4.1. (Page 2 of 4)

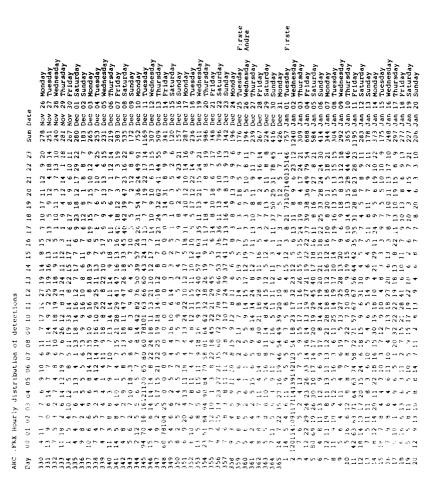
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Table 3.4.1. Daily and hourly distribution of NORESS detections. For each day is shown number of detections within each hour of the day, and number of detections for that day. The end statistics give total number of detections distributed for each hour and the total sum of detections during the period. The averages show number of processed days, hourly distribution and average per processed day. (Page 4 of 4)

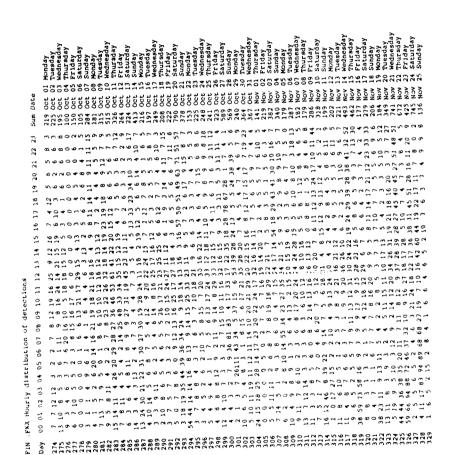
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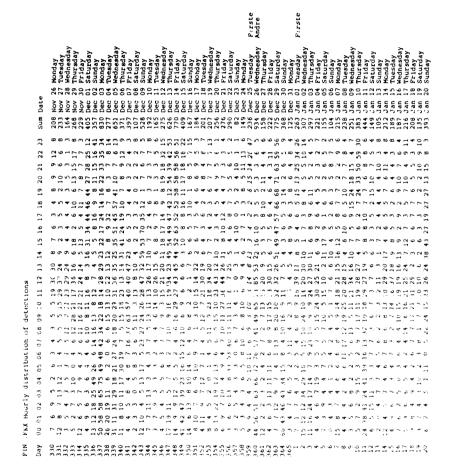


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Table 3.4.2. Daily and hourly distribution of ARCESS detections. For each day is shown number of detections within each hour of the day, and number of Jetections for that day. The end statistics give total number of detections distributed for each hour and the total sum of detections during the period. The averages show number of processed days, hourly distribution and average per processed day. (Page 4 of 4)





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Table 3.4.3. Daily and hourly distribution of FINESA detections. For each day is shown number of detections within each hour of the day, and number of detections for that day. The end statistics give total number of detections distributed for each hour and the total sum of detections during the period. The averages show number of processed days, hourly distribution and average per processed day. (Page 4 of 4)

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Table 3.4.4. Daily and hourly distribution of GERESS detections. For each day is shown number of detections within each hour of the day, and number of detections for that day. The end statistics give total number of detections distributed for each hour and the total sum of detections during the period. The averages show number of processed days, hourly distribution and average per processed day. (Page 4 of 4)

3.5 IMS operation

The Intelligent Monitoring System (IMS) was installed at NORSAR in December 1989 and has been operated experimentally since 1 January 1990 for automatic processing of multiple-array data. The current version of IMS processes data from the two-array network consisting of NORESS and ARCESS. An upgrade of IMS scheduled for mid-91 will allow data from additional arrays and single stations to be incorporated.

In general, our routine operation of the IMS during the reporting period has progressed well, and the system has proved to be very powerful and flexible. The well-developed automatic processing combined with very versatile interactive tools has kept the analyst workload at a low level, and in fact only one analyst has been required to handle the regular processing at any time.

Since the IMS is still in an initial stage, there have naturally been some problems of a technical nature, but these have diminished considerably as the system has matured.

Table 3.5.1 presents an overview of IMS event processor downtimes. Table 3.5.2 gives a summary of phase detections and processed regional events by IMS. From top to bottom, the table gives the total number of detections by the IMS, the detections that are associated with regional events declared by the IMS, the number of detections that are not associated with such events, the number of regional events declared by the IMS, the number of such events rejected by the analyst, the number of events accepted by the analyst, the number of events accepted by the analyst without any changes, and finally the number of events accepted after some sort of modification by the analyst. This last category is divided into two classes: Events where phases (not detected by the IMS) have been added by the analyst and events for which the phase assignments by the IMS have been changed or one or more phase detections have been removed.

From initial review of the IMS bulletin, it is clear that the final output is of very high quality from a seismological point of view. More detailed evaluation will be conducted at a later stage.

B.Kr. Hokland U. Baadshaug S. Mykkeltveit

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1990 Oct 1 00:00:00.000 - 1990 Oct 2 00:00:00.000
1990 Dec 11 05:52:10.200 - 1990 Dec 11 14:34:29.600
1991 Feb 7 22:00:00.000 - 1991 Feb 8 08:00:00.000
1991 Feb 13 12:00:00.000 - 1991 Feb 14 10:00:00.000
1991 Feb 14 23:00:00.000 - 1991 Feb 16 03:00:00.000
```

Table 3.5.1. IMS event processor (pipeline) downtimes.

	Oct 90	Nov 90	Dec 90	Jan 91	Feb 91	Mar 91	Total
Phase detections	18011	15578	18127	19042	15652	13854	100264
- Associated phases	2618	2664	2325	2715	2255	2943	15520
- Unassociated phases	15393	12914	15802	16327	13397	10911	84744
Events declared	991	1048	913	1156	957	1126	6191
- Rejected events	192	229	215	246	213	174	1269
- Accepted events	799	819	698	910	744	952	4922
Unchanged events	239	227	166	262	227	263	1384
Modified events	560	592	532	648	517	689	3538
Phases added	39	48	41	48	54	61	291
Phases changed or removed	521	544	491	600	463	628	3247

Table 3.5.2. IMS phase detections and events summary.

4 Improvements and Modifications

4.1 NORSAR

NORSAR data acquisition

No modification has been made to the NORSAR data acquisition system.

NORSAR detection processing

The NORSAR detection processor has been running satisfactorily on the IBM during this reporting period.

Detection statistics are given in section 2.

NORSAR event processing

There are no changes in the routine processing of NORSAR events, using the IBM system.

NORSAR upgrade

Testing of new digitizer systems has been going on. It is now clear that it will be possible to transmit sufficient DC power through existing cables to operate modern 24 bit digitizers at the remote sites.

The strategy for upgrading the NORSAR system is to continue testing of available 24 bit digitizer systems to evaluate their performance, and within the coming year to acquire continuous data from one subarray.

In parallel with hardware testing, there is a need to reanalyze NORSAR master events to generate a new data base of time delay corrections.

4.2 NORESS/ARCESS/FINESA/GERESS

Detection processing

The routine detection processing of the array data is running satisfactorily on each of the arrays' SUN-3/280 acquisition systems. The same program is used for NORSAR, NORESS, ARCESS, FINESA, and GERESS, but with different recipes. The beam tables for NORESS and ARCESS are found in NORSAR Sci. Rep. No. 1-89/90. The beam table for FINESA/GERESS is found in NORSAR Sci. Rep. No. 1-90/91.

Detection statistics are given in section 3.

During this reporting period, two new three-component stations have been installed in Poland. KSP is located at Ksiaz (50.8°N, 16.3°E), and SFP is located at Stary Folwark (54.3°N, 23.3°E).

Data acquisition for the two stations in Poland has been running during test periods along with detection processing. Detection (STA/LTA) processing is performed on the vertical component using 13 different filter bands. Incoherent detection processing has been tested on the horizontal components. The subsequent signal processing is still in an experimental mode and is focusing on the difficult problem of phase identification.

Event processing. Phase estimation

This process performs F-K and polarization analysis for each detection to identify phase velocity, azimuth and type of phase, and the results are put into the ORACLE detection data base for use by IAS.

Plot and epicenter determination

Descriptions of single array event processing are found in NORSAR Sci. Rep. No. 2-88/89 and NORSAR Sci. Rep. No. 2-89/90.

J. Fyen

5 Maintenance Activities

5.1 Activities in the field and at the Maintenance Center

This section summarizes the activities in the field, at the Maintenance Center (NMC) Hamar and NDPC activities related to monitoring and control of the NORSAR, NORESS, ARCESS, FINESA and GERESS arrays. The recently installed stations in Poland were not fully operational by the end of March 1991, but data from these stations have been subjected to NDPC monitoring during selected time intervals.

Activities involve preventive and corrective maintenance, and in addition installation and testing of new equipment related to satellite communication (P.W. Larsen, Poland, October 1990) and installation and testing of a new UPS system (ARCESS, October 1990).

NORSAR

This array was visited in October and November 1990 and in January and March 1991. Activities related to this array have been diverse, involving: preventive maintenance, cable splicing/location of cables, adjustment of Channel gain and DC offset, RA-5 amplifier replacements, work on 02B (tel) including channel VCO adjustment, battery replacement, SP/LP instrument adjustments, and SLEM reset after power outages. Finnaly, there was work in connection with testing of an RD-3 (Remote Digitizer) in conjunction with the NORSAR upgrade activities.

NORESS

The NORESS array was visited in November 1990 and January 1991. The satellite clock was replaced, the UPS reset and a test of the Megamux multiplexer was carried out.

ARCESS

This array was visited in October and December 1990 in connection with installation of a new UPS (Uninterrupted Power Supply), replacement of a seismometer cable, adjustment of fiber optic links between the hub and remote sites, and restart and check of UPS equipment (Dec 1990).

FINESA

There were no visits in the period.

Poland

Satellite communication equipment was installed (October 1990).

Details on all actitivites are presented in Table 5.1.

Subarray/	Task	Date
area		
NORSAR:		
01A	Preventive maintenance including adjustment of	
	channel gain, DC offset. Also cable work SP02 carried	
	out.	25 Oct
01B	Preventive maintenance. Cable splicing SP04	9 Oct
02B	Preventive maintenance.	26 Oct
02C	Preventive maintenance.	24 Oct
03C	Preventive maintenance.	26 Oct
04C	Preventive maintenance.	29 Oct
06C	Preventive maintenance. In addition, splicing of cable SP02, 04 05.	10 Oct
ARCESS:	Installed a new UPS. Replaced defective seismometer	1-7 Oct
AICESS.	cable at site B5. Adjusted all fiber links between	1-1 000
	the hub and remote sites.	
Poland:	P.W. Larsen installed satellite communication	23-30 Oc
I olulia.	equipment.	20 00 00
NDPC:	Daily status check of all arrays	Oct
	Weekly calibration of NORSAR SP/LP instruments	0.00
	Continuous measurement of Mass Position and Free	
	Period. Adjusted when outside tolerances	
NORSAR:	1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	
01A	Cable splicing, SP02	2 Nov
· · · ·	Cable splicing, SP05	5 Nov
06C	Replaced RA-5 amplifier SP01	8 Nov
02C	Visited the subarray in connection with communication	12 Nov
020	cable damage	12 1101
02B(tel)	Station 05 work, channel inoperative	28 Nov
NORESS:	Replaced satellite clock. UPS reset.	13.19
1. O KI333.	replaced swelling clock. Of a reset.	Nov
NDPC:	Daily status check of all arrays.	Nov
noi o.	Weekly calibration of NORSAR SP/LP instruments	1104
	Continuous measurement of Mass Position and Free	
	Period	

Table 5.1 Activities in the field and the NORSAR Maintenance Center, including NDPC activities related to the NORSAR, NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA arrays, 1 October 1990 - 31 March 1991.

Subarray/	Task	Date
area		
ARCESS:	Restart of UPS equipment	14,15
		Dec
NDPC:	Daily status check of all arrays.	Dec
	Weekly calibration of NORSAR SP/LP instruments	
	Continuous measurement of Mass Position and Free Period	
	Adjustment of Mass Position and Free Period when outside tolerances	
NORSAR:	#**	
02B(tel)	Adjusted VCO, ch. 5	4 Jan
06C	Adjusted SP/LP instruments	7 Jan
02B	SLEM restart after power outage.	23 Jan
NORESS:	Megamux installed in connection with a test.	9 Jan
	Megamux disconnected after test completed.	11 Jan
NDPC:	Daily status check of all arrays.	Jan
	Weekly calibration of NORSAR SP/LP instruments	1991
	Continuous measurement of Mass Position and Free	
	Period	
	Adjustment of Mass Position and Free Period when outside tolerances	
NMC:	Work in connection with NORSAR upgrading	Feb
NDPC:	Daily status check of all arrays.	Feb
	Weekly calibration of NORSAR SP/LP instruments	
	Continuous measurement of Mass Position and Free	
	Period	
	Adjustment of Mass Position and Free Period when outside tolerances	

Table 5.1 (cont.)

Subarray/ area	Task	Date
NORSAR:		
06C	An RD-3 (Remote Digitizer) was tested on	6,10
	channel 01	Mar
06C	Replaced RA-5 amplifier ch 03	14 Mar
02B(tel)	Replaced channel 4 battery.	7 Mar
NDPC:	Daily status check of all arrays.	Mar
	Weekly calibration of NORSAR SP/LP instruments	
	Continuous measurement of Mass Position and Free	
	Period	
	Adjustment of Mass Position and Free Period when outside tolerances	

Table 5.1 (cont.)

5.2 Array status

As of 31 March 1991 the following NORSAR channels deviated from tolerances.

01A 01 8 Hz filter 02 8 Hz filter 04 30 dB attenuator

O.A. Hansen

6 Documentation Developed

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L.B. Loughran

7 Summary of Technical Reports / Papers Published

7.1 RMS Lg analysis of Novaya Zemlya explosion recordings

Introduction

In recent years, much attention has focused upon the use of the seismic Lg phase to determine the yield of underground nuclear explosions. In the first of a number of Lg studies undertaken by the NORSAR staff during the 1980s, Ringdal (1983) analyzed digital NORSAR Lg data of selected Semipalatinsk events. He found that, when using NORSAR RMS Lg instead of P waves recorded at NORSAR to estimate source size, it was possible to eliminate effectively the magnitude bias relative to worldwide mb observed at NORSAR between Degelen and Shagan River explosions. The method consisted of averaging log(RMS) values of individual NORSAR channels, filtered in a band of 0.6 to 3.0 Hz in order to enhance Lg signal-to-noise ratio. Ringdal and Hokland (1987) expanded the data base and introduced a noise compensation procedure to improve the reliability of measurement at low SNR values. They were able to identify a distinct P-Lg bias between the Northeast and Southwest portions of the Shagan River Test Site, a feature that was confirmed by Ringdal and Fyen (1988) using Gräfenberg array data. Ringdal and Marshall (1989) combined P- and Lg-based source size estimators to estimate the yields of 96 Shagan River explosions from 1965 to 1988, using data on the cratering explosion of 15 January 1965 as a reference for the yield calculations.

Hansen, Ringdal and Richards (1990) analyzed available data from stations in China and the Soviet Union, and found that RMS Lg of Semipalatinsk explosions measured at these stations showed excellent consistency. They concluded that for explosions at Semipalatinsk with good signal-to-noise ratio, $m_b(Lg)$ may be estimated at single stations with an accuracy (one standard deviation) of about 0.03 magnitude unit. It is noteworthy that this accuracy was consistently obtained for a variety of stations at very different azimuths and distances, even though the basic parameters remained exactly as originally proposed by Ringdal for NORSAR recordings (0.6-3.0 Hz bandpass filter, RMS window length of 2 minutes, centered at a time corresponding to a group velocity of 3.5 km/s).

In this paper we apply Ringdal's method to NORSAR and Gräfenberg recordings of Novaya Zemlya explosions. This initial study focuses on the Northern Novaya Zemlya test site, and we will only consider explosions occurring after 1976.

Data

The data base for this study comprises seismic recordings at NORSAR and Gräfenberg for 18 presumed underground nuclear explosions at Novaya Zemlya from 1976 through 1990.

The NORSAR array (Bungum, Husebye and Ringdal, 1971) was established in 1970, and originally comprised 22 subarrays, deployed over an area of 100 km diameter. Since 1976 the number of operational subarrays has been 7, comprising altogether 42 vertical-component SP sensors (type HS-10). In this paper, analysis has been conducted using data from these 7 subarrays. Sampling rate for the NORSAR SP data is 20 samples per second, and all data are recorded on digital magnetic tape.

The Gräfenberg array (Harjes and Seidl, 1978) was established in 1976, and today comprises 13 broadband seismometer sites, three of which are 3-component systems. The instrument response is flat to velocity from about 20 second period to 5 Hz. Sampling rate is 20 samples per second, and the data are recorded on digital magnetic tape.

Fig. 7.1.1 shows the Lg propagation paths from Novaya Zemlya to the two arrays. The distance and azimuth are 2200 km and 256 degrees to NORSAR, compared to 3300 km and 213 degrees to Gräfenberg. Both paths cross the Barents Sea, and as observed by several authors (see Baumgardt, 1990), this implies significant Lg blockage effects. The result is particularly visible on NORSAR records, which show relatively weak Lg energy compared to the P and Sn phases.

Examples of NORSAR recordings of one of the explosions are shown in Fig. 7.1.2. We note that this (as well as most of the other events analyzed) exhibits signal clipping of both P and Sn. This is a result of the very strong seismic signals recorded at NORSAR for Novaya Zemlya explosions, in combination with the limited dynamic range of the digital recording system. For this reason, we have chosen to measure the RMS Lg at NORSAR by selecting a 2-minute window in the Lg coda, starting at 10 1/2 min after the origin time of the event (see the figure). Previous studies of Semipalatinsk explosions have shown that the RMS method is not very sensitive to the exact positioning of the time window, as long as it is kept the same for all events analyzed.

On Fig. 7.1.2, we have also indicated a two-minute P coda window, which we have used to calculate NORSAR P coda magnitudes for the explosions, using the array RMS method. The P coda window starts 6 minutes after the event origin time.

In Fig. 7.1.3 we show an example of GRF recordings of one of the explosions. Here, the dynamic range is sufficient to avoid any clipping, and we have selected a two-minute window which includes the main Lg energy, starting 16 minutes after event origin time.

Analysis results

Applying the RMS measurement technique using our standard filter band (0.6-3.0 Hz) and averaging over array elements as described by Ringdal and Hokland (1987), we arrive at results listed in Tables 7.1.1 through 7.1.3.

Table 7.1.1 gives our results for NORSAR P-coda magnitudes, using the time window indicated on Fig. 7.1.2. A constant correction factor has been added to the log(RMS) values to make these coda magnitudes consistent, on the average, with world-wide m_b .

Table 7.1.2 covers the NORSAR Lg results, and shows that RMS Lg can be estimated for all the events processed, including two events below $m_b = 5.0$ (events 2 and 4). (For the 27 Sep 78 explosion, no NORSAR data are available.)

Table 7.1.3 gives corresponding Lg results for the Gräfenberg array. Here, the smallest of the events (Event 4) had too low SNR to allow reliable measurements.

The m_b values listed in Tables 7.1.1 through 7.1.3 are taken from Lilwall and Marshall (1986) for events up to 1984, and have been calculated from NEIC station reports for later events.

Fig. 7.1.4 shows a comparison of world-wide m_b and NORSAR P coda magnitudes. We note that the correspondence is excellent (orthogonal standard deviation is only 0.027). Thus the NORSAR recordings appear to provide a very stable measure of m_b for events from this test site.

Figs. 7.1.5 and 7.1.6 are scatter plots comparing world-wide m_b to NORSAR and Gräfenberg RMS Lg magnitudes. We note that there is a considerable scatter in both of these plots. In particular, it appears that the majority of events have almost the same M(Lg), whereas the m_b values vary from below 5.7 to above 6.0 for this group.

It is especially interesting to note that NORSAR M(Lg) deviates significantly from m_b , whereas NORSAR P coda corresponds very closely to m_b .

Fig. 7.1.7 shows a scatter plot of Gräfenberg versus NORSAR M(Lg). The correspondence is excellent, with an orthogonal standard deviation of only 0.035. The scatter is further reduced (to 0.025) if we consider only events with at least 5 available GRF channels (Fig. 7.1.8). Thus, we obtain the same close correspondence between Lg observations from these two arrays for Novaya Zemlya explosions as has previously been observed for Semipalatinsk events.

With the current lack of independently obtained calibration data, it would be premature to draw any firm conclusions as to the relative accuracy of m_b and M(Lg) in estimating yields of these explosions. Nevertheless, it would appear that the close grouping in M(Lg), especially seen for the NORSAR data, is unlikely to be a coincidence. It would seem reasonable to conclude that this group of explosions has very nearly the same yield, in spite of the divergence in m_b estimates. However, additional analysis, in particular including available Lg data

from Soviet stations for this event set, should be performed in order to further test this hypothesis.

F. Ringdal

J. Fyen

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Eν	Date Origin	time	mb	NCH	Noise	STD	Pcoda	STD	CORR	m(Pcoda)
01	29/09/76-273:03	.00.00.00	5.77	40/42	1.867	0.064	3.133	0.049	3.132	5.732
02	20/10/76-294:08	.00.00.00	4.89	40/42	1.933	0.066	2.405	0.048	2.378	4.978
03	01/09/77-244:03	.00.00.00	5.71	34/41	1.777	0.062	3.151	0.045	3.150	5.750
04	09/10/77-282:11	.00.00.00	4.51	40/41	1.908	0.066	2.139	0.047	2.046	4.646
05	10/08/78-222:08	.00.00.00	6.04	33/39	1.862	0.066	3.352	0.046	3.352	5.952
06	27/09/78-270:02	.05.00.00	5.68	*00/00	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
07	24/09/79-267:03	.30.00.00	5.80	38/39	1.852	0.059	3.182	0.050	3.182	5.782
08	18/10/79-291:07	.10.00.00	5.85	28/39	1.918	0.050	3.222	0.050	3.221	5.821
09	11/10/80-285:07	.10.00.00	5.80	32/38	1.911	0.060	3.176	0.041	3.176	5.776
10	01/10/81-274:12	.15.00.00	5.91	20/39	1.959	0.063	3.282	0.037	3.282	5.882
11	11/10/82-284:07	.15.00.00	5.52	27/40	1.828	0.085	2.952	0.050	2.951	5.551
12	18/08/83-230:16	.10.00.00	5.84	25/39	1.776	0.054	3.170	0.054	3.169	5.769
13	25/09/83-268:13	.10.00.00	5.71	24/39	2.148	0.055	3.125	0.052	3.123	5.723
14	25/10/84-299:06	.30.00.00	5.77	28/41	1.932	0.063	3.144	0.066	3.143	5.743
15	02/08/87-214:02	.00.00.00	5.71	28/40	1.908	0.080	3.170	0.048	3.169	5.769
16	07/05/88-128:22	.50.00.00	5.52	27/40	1.478	0.066	3.014	0.038	3.014	5.614
17	04/12/88-339:05	.20.00.00	5.79	30/40	2.055	0.061	3.223	0.046	3.222	5.822
18	24/10/90-297:14	.58.00.00	5.60	38/40	1.822	0.070	3.019	0.044	3.018	5.618

Table 7.1.1. NORSAR RMS P coda magnitudes for events in the data base. The table lists event number, origin date and time, world-wide m_b and a list of measurements made in this study:

NCH	: Number of NORSAR data channels used, and the total number available
Noise	: Array averaged log RMS values in a noise window
STD	: Corresponding standard deviation across array
Pcoda	: Array averaged log RMS values in the P coda window
STD	: Corresponding standard deviation
CORR	: Noise-corrected log RMS values of the P coda
m(Pcoda)	: P coda magnitude derived by adding a constant term
	to the noise-corrected values.

Ev	Date	Origin	time	mb	NCH	Noise	STD	Lg	STD	LgCORR	MLg(NAO)
01	29/09/	76-273:03	.00.00.00	5.77	40/42	1.867	0.064	3.161	0.065	3.160	5.770
02	20/10/	76-294:08	.00.00.00	4.89	40/42	1.933	0.066	2.479	0.065	2.461	5.071
03	01/09/	77-244:03	.00.00.00	5.71					0.065		5.757
04	09/10/	77-282:11	.00.00.00	4.51	40/41	1.906	0.063	2.278	0.059	2.235	4.845
05	10/08/	78-222:08	.00.00.00	6.04	33/39	1.862	0.066	3.174	0.057	3.173	5.783
06	27/09/	78-270:02	.05.00.00	5.68	*00/00	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
07	24/09/	79-267:03	.30.00.00	5.80	38/39	1.852	0.059	3.170	0.063	3.169	5.779
08	18/10/	79-291:07	10.00.00	5.85	28/39	1.918	0.050	3.128	0.060	3.127	5.737
09	11/10/	80-285:07	10.00.00	5.80	32/38	1.911	0.060	3.175	0.060	3.174	5.784
10	01/10/	81-274:12	15.00.00	5.91	20/39	1.959	0.063	3.173	0.044	3.172	5.782
		82-284:07			27/40	1.828	0.085	2.994	0.074	2.993	5,603
12	18/08/	83-230:16	.10.00.00	5.84	25/39	1.776	0.054	3.197	0.062	3.197	5.807
		83-268:13			24/39	2.148	0.055	3.189	0.047	3.187	5.797
		34-299:06			28/41	1.932	0.063	3.196	0.075	3.195	5.805
		87-214:02			28/40	1.908	0.080	3.197	0.078	3.196	5.806
		88-128:22			27/40	1.478	0.066	3.109	0.064	3.109	5.719
		88-339:05			30/40	2,055	0.061	3.191	0.053	3,190	5.800
		90~297:14							0.058		5.605

NOTE: The M(Lg) values have been obtained by adding a constant correction term (2.610) to the noise corrected log RMS Lg values. This correction term is preliminary, and may be subject to later revision.

Table 7.1.2. NORSAR RMS Lg magnitudes for events in the data base. The structure of the table is analogous to Table 7.1.1. The rightmost column lists the NORSAR M(Lg) values.

Ev	Date	Origin	time	шb	NCH	Noise	STD	Lg	STD	LgCORR	MLg(GRF)
01	29/09/7	6-273:03	.00.00.00	5.77	02/04	1.118	0.086	2.025	0.035	2.022	5.799
02	20/10/7	6-294:08	.00.00.00	4.89	03/04	1.318	0.047	1.435	0.041	1.245	5.022
03	01/09/7	77-244:03	.00.00.00	5.71	03/04	1.023	0.007	2.C97	0.021	2.095	5.872
04	09/10/7	77-282:11	.00.00.00	4.51	*03/04	1.223	0.008	1.255	0.085	0.000	0.000
05	10/08/7	8-222:08	.00.00.00	6.04	05/13	1.223	0.069	1.988	0.102	1.982	5.759
06	27/09/7	8-270:02	.05.00.00	5.68	06/13	1.270	0.132	1.896	0.114	1.883	5.660
07	24/09/7	9-267:03	.30.00.00	5.80	07/13	1.217	0.097	2.053	0.118	2.048	5.825
08	18/10/7	9-291:07	.10.00.00	5.85	10/13	1.350	0.100	1.905	0.116	1.887	5.664
09	11/10/8	80-285:07	.10.00.00	5.80	13/13	1.350	0.128	1.968	0.115	1.955	5.732
10	01/10/8	31-274:12	.15.00.00	5.91	08/13	1.416	0.069	2.019	0.099	2.006	5.783
11	11/10/8	32-284:07	.15.00.00	5.52	13/13	1.291	0.121	1.828	0.120	1.808	5.585
12	18/08/8	3-230:16	.10.00.00	5.84	12/13	1.214	0.122	2.066	0.135	2.062	5.739
13	25/09/8	3-268:13	.10.00.00	5.71	13/13	1.126	0.103	2.004	0.145	2.000	5.777
14	25/10/8	84-299:06	.30.00.00	5.77	13/13	1.382	0.131	2.069	0.124	2.060	5.837
15	02/08/8	37-214:02	.00.00.00	5.71	12/13	1.033	0.138	2.035	0.147	2.033	5.810
16	07/05/8	88-128:22	.50.00.00	5.52	12/13	1.018	0.162	1.881	0.148	1.877	5.654
17	04/12/8	8-339:05	.20.00.00	5.79	13/13	1.195	0.147	2.038	0.128	2.034	5.811
18	24/10/9	0-297:14	.58.00.00	5.60	08/13	1.452	0.214	1.817	0.150	1.773	5.550

NOTE: The M(Lg) values have been obtained by adding a constant correction term (3.777) to the noise corrected log RMS Lg values. This correction term is preliminary, and may be subject to later revision.

Table 7.1.3. Gräfenberg RMS Lg magnitudes for events in the data base. The structure of the table is analogous to Table 7.1.1. The rightmost column liets the Gräfenberg M(Lg) values.

D=2200 km Az=256 D=3300 km Az=243 NORSAR D=4200 km Az=313 GRAFENBERG D=4700 km Az=297 EAST LONGITUDE (DEG)

Fig. 7.1.1. Map showing the Lg propagation paths from the main Soviet test sites (Novaya Zemlya and Semipalatinsk) to the NORSAR and Gräfenberg arrays.

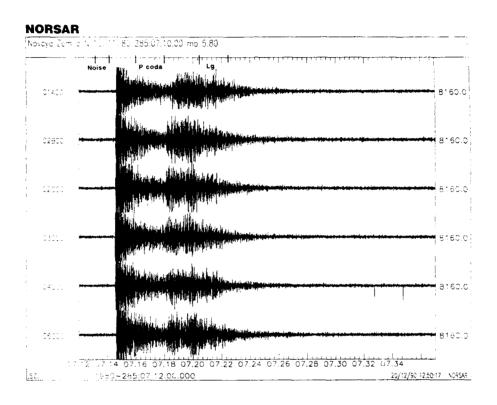


Fig. 7.1.2. Example of NORSAR recordings of a Novaya Zemlya explosion (11 October 1980). The center instrument of each of the 7 subarrays is displayed, covering 25 minutes of unfiltered data. The positioning of time windows used for RMS Lg, Pcoda and noise measurements is indicated. Note the clipping of the initial P and that also the S phase is close to exceeding the dynamic range.

GRAFENBERG

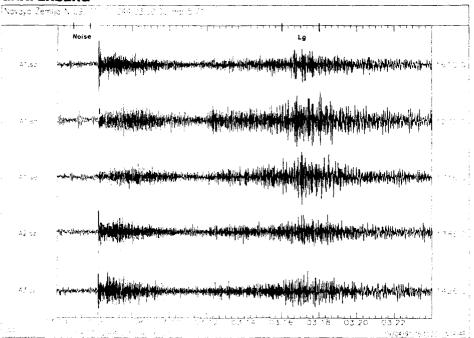


Fig. 7.1.3. Example of Gräfenberg recordings of a Novaya Zemlya explosion (1 September 1977). The figure shows 20 minutes of unfiltered data from the three components of the A1 seismometer site and the vertical-component A2 and A3 instruments. Note that the horizontal components have not been used in our analysis. The positioning of time windows used for RMS Lg and noise measurements is indicated.

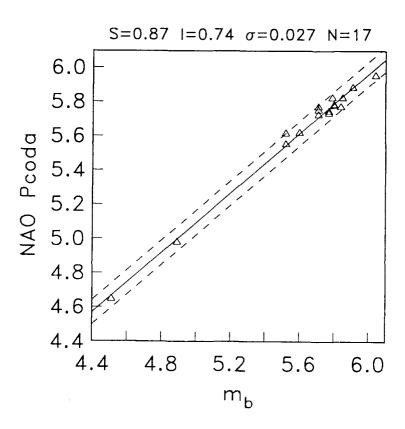


Fig. 7.1.4. Plot of NORSAR RMS P coda m_b versus world-wide m_b for events in the data base. The straight line has been obtained by least-squares regression with respect to the horizontal axis, and the stippled lines correspond to plus/minus two standard deviations. The slope (S), intercept (I), orthogonal standard deviation (σ) and number of data points (N) are listed on the figure. Note the remarkably close correspondence between the two estimators.

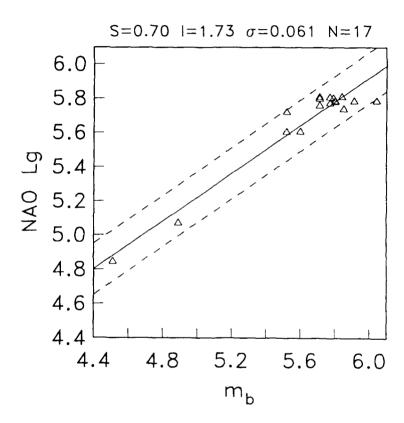


Fig. 7.1.5. Plot of NORSAR RMS Lg magnitude versus world-wide m_b . Note the much greater scatter in this plot compared to Fig. 7.1.4. Notational conventions are as in Fig. 7.1.4.

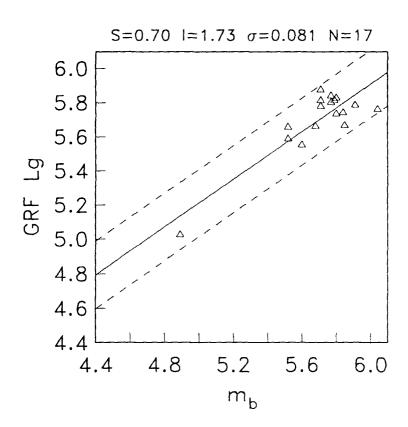


Fig. 7.1.6. Plot of Gräfenberg RMS Lg magnitude versus world-wide m_b . The scatter is comparable to Fig. 7.1.5. Notational conventions are as in Fig. 7.1.4.

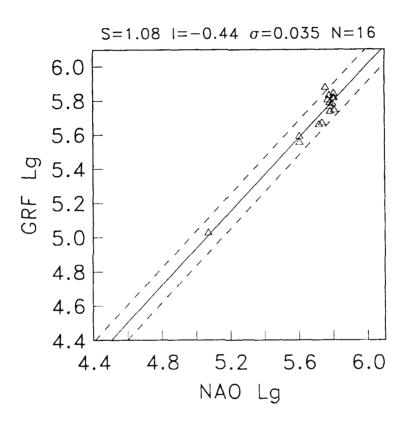


Fig. 7.1.7. Plot of Gräfenberg versus NORSAR RMS Lg magnitudes for all common events. Note the close of respondence, although one point in particular (Event 3) appears to be an outlier. Notational conventions are as in Fig. 7.1.4.

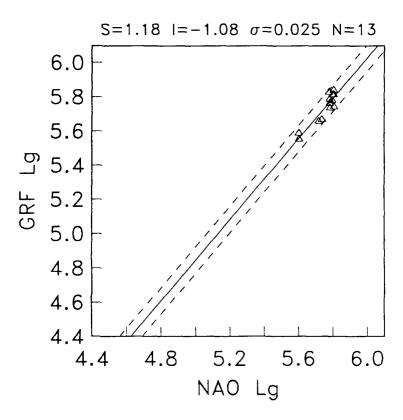


Fig. 7.1.8. Plot of Gräfenberg versus NOPSAR RMS Lg magnitudes, using only events for which at least 5 GRF channels were available. Notational conventions are as in Fig. 7.1.4. Note that the orthogonal standard deviation is as low as 0.025. Also note that in spite of the very small range of magnitudes, the two arrays show mutually consistent trends.

7.2 Threshold monitoring of Novaya Zemlya: A scaling experiment

Introduction

In the previous NORSAR Semiannual Technical Summary, Kværna and Ringdal (1990) presented results from a one-week experiment in continuously monitoring the Northern Novaya Zemlya test site. Data from the three regional arrays NORESS, ARCESS, FINESA were used to calculate the thresholds, using the method of Ringdal and Kværna (1989). The location of these three arrays relative to the test site is shown in Fig. 7.2.1.

In that one-week study, it was found that the test site could be consistently monitored at a very low magnitude level (typically $m_b = 2.5$). In fact, every single occurrence of the threshold exceeding $m_b = 2.5$ could be explained as resulting from an interfering event signal either from teleseismic or regional distance.

While these results are very encouraging, there is clearly much work remaining to be done before the concept of threshold monitoring is sufficiently well understood. In this paper, we attempt to illuminate the concept further by describing a simple experiment, involving down-scaling of recorded signal traces of the 24 October 1990 explosion at Novaya Zemlya and simulating what might have been observed on the threshold traces if such a down-scaled event had in fact occurred.

Scaling of the 24 October 1990 explosion

The explosion of 24 October 1990 had a world-wide $m_b = 5.6$. Recorded array traces of this event are shown in Fig. 7.2.2, where also the P-wave SNR (STA/LTA) on each filtered array beam is indicated. Our scaling procedure consisted simply of dividing each trace by a factor of 1000 and adding these down-scaled traces to actually observed recordings at various points in time.

Two examples of such "down-scaled" signals superpositioned on noise are shown in Fig. 7.2.3 and 7.2.4. The first of these figures covers a "low noise" interval (local night time), whereas the second figure corresponds to "high noise" (local day time). In the first case, the P phase is readily seen on all three arrays, and the S phase at ARCESS is also prominent. In the second case, the phases are far less clear, although the ARCESS P and S still have good SNR.

Before proceeding, we pause briefly to note that a down-scaling by a factor of 1000 in effect reduces the event m_b by 3 orders of magnitude. In this sense, the down-scaled event corresponds to $m_b = 2.6$. We have not attempted to apply any source scaling law for signal frequency, partly in order to maintain simplicity. Furthermore, such scaling laws, while certainly important, are not sufficiently well known to apply with any degree of confidence.

Moreover, it should be noted that any shift toward higher signal frequencies, as would be a natural consequence of applying frequency scaling, would only tend

to improve the signal-to-noise ratios of these high-frequency arrays. Thus, our procedure can be considered as conservative with respect to estimating detection capability.

Simulation of threshold monitoring

Turning now to the actual data, we selected a typical 24-hour time period (day 104/1991), and added the down-scaled signal at hourly intervals in order to get a picture of the effect under different noise conditions. A total of 24 identical signals were thus added at different times.

Fig. 7.2.5 shows the "actual" threshold trace (day 104) for Novaya Zemlya, developed exactly as described in detail by Kværna and Ringdal (1990) for the one-week monitoring experiment. We note that there is only one peak significantly exceeding $m_b = 2.5$; this corresponds to a large teleseismic earthquake ($m_b = 6.0$) from the Ryuku Islands.

Fig. 7.2.6 shows the resulting trace for that same day after adding the down-scaled signals and recomputing the threshold trace. We note that all of the 24 occurrences stand out clearly on the plot. Thus, if an explosion of $m_b=2.6$ had indeed occurred at Novaya Zemlya that day, and assuming that the scaling is representative, there would have been clear indications on the threshold trace of such an explosion.

Discussion

We emphasize that this study is only intended to give an illustration of the potential of the threshold monitoring method, and that clearly more data and additional analysis is required to assess the situation in more detail. With our procedure of scaling by a constant factor in amplitude, we have, for example, not considered signal variance, which might contribute to a greater variability in the size of the amplitude peak, although the effect is not expected to be very significant.

An interesting observation is the way in which threshold monitoring complements the traditional detection/location type monitoring: Let us for a moment assume that an $m_b=2.6$ explosion had in fact occurred at Novaya Zemlya, and that the resulting signals were similar to the scaled-down signals used here. It might well be that such an explosion would not have been detected and located by the regional array network. In fact, during daytime noise conditions (Fig. 7.2.4) there would very likely have been only one or two confident phase detections (Pn and possibly Sn at ARCESS), and this is not sufficient to locate in the traditional network sense.

Nevertheless, as seen in this paper, such an explosion would have been clearly indicated on the network threshold trace. It would not have been possible to explain this peak as resulting from some "different" event (as was always the case for such peaks in the Kværna and Ringdal (1990) study). Thus, a peak

of this type would be a prime candidate for further detailed off-line analysis, possibly implying efforts to acquire additional data in order to further elucidate the nature of the event.

- T. Kværna
- F. Ringdal

References

Kværna, T. and F. Ringdal (1990): Continuous threshold monitoring of the Novaya Zemlya test site, Semiannual Tech. Summary, 1 Apr - 30 Sep 1990, NORSAR Sci. Rep. 1-90/91, Kjeller, Norway.

Ringdal, F. and T. Kværna (1989): A multichannel processing approach to real time network detection, phase association and threshold monitoring, *Bull. Seism. Soc. Am.*, Vol. 79, 1927-1940.

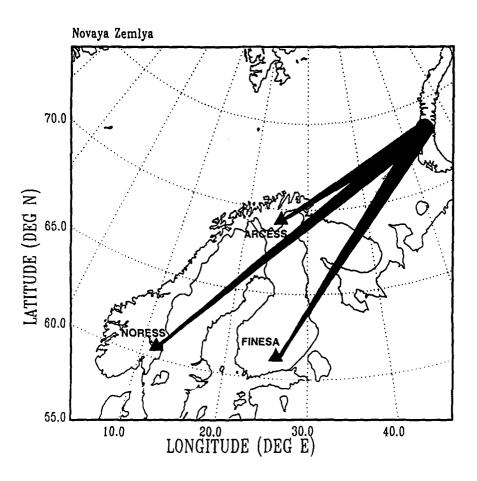


Fig. 7.2.1. Location of the target area (Novaya Zemlya) for the threshold monitoring experiment. The locations of the three arrays NORESS ($\Delta=2280~km$), ARCESS ($\Delta=1110~km$) and FINESA ($\Delta=1780~km$) are indicated.

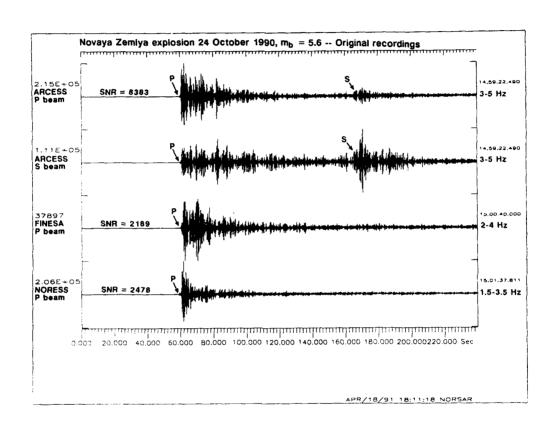


Fig. 7.2.2. P- and S-wave recordings (filtered array beams) at ARCESS, FINESA and NORESS for the Novaya Zemlya nuclear explosion of 24 October 1990. The SNRs of the detecting P-beams are also given.

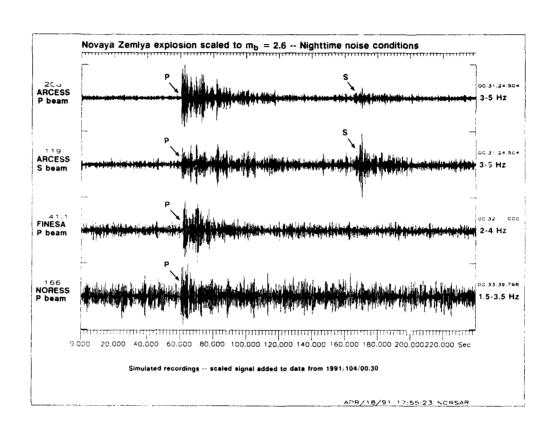


Fig. 7.2.3. "Down-scaled" signals from the Novaya Zemlya nuclear explosion of 24 October 1990 superimposed on noise during a "low noise" inter al. The origin time of the simulated "event" is 1991/101/00.30.00.

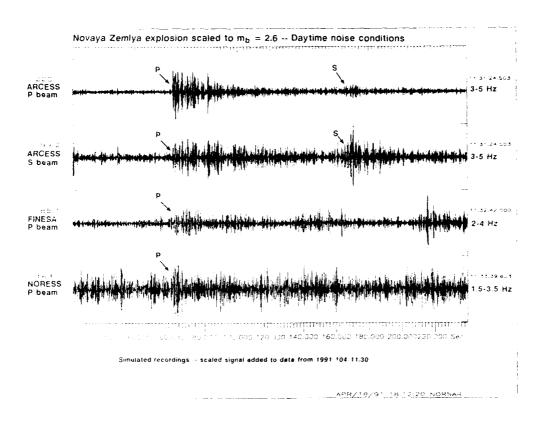


Fig. 7.2.4. Same as Fig. 7.2.3, but for a "high noise" interval. The origin time of the simulated "event" is 1991/101/11.30.00.

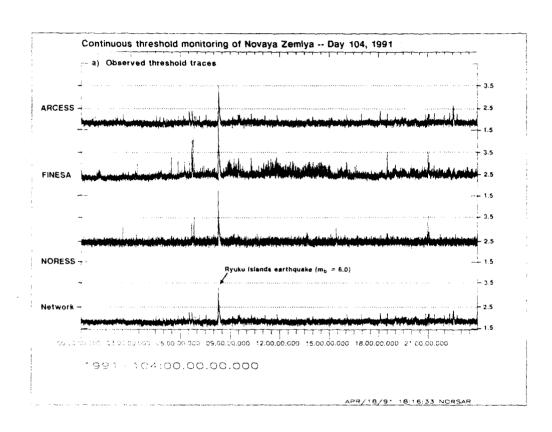


Fig. 7.2.5. Threshold monitoring of the Novaya Zemlya test site for day 1991/104 (14 April 1991). The top three traces represent thresholds (upper 90 per cent magnitude limits) obtained from each of the three arrays (ARCESS, FINESA, NORESS), whereas the bottom trace shows the combined network thresholds. Note that for the network trace there is only one magnitude peak exceeding 2.5.

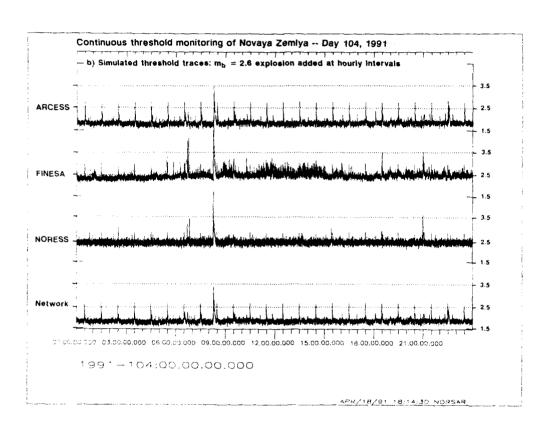


Fig. 7.2.6. Same as Fig. 7.2.5, but with down-scaled signals superimposed on the data at hourly intervals. Note that all occurrences of the simulated $m_b = 2.6$ events clearly stand out on the combined network trace.

7.3 Current status of development of the regional network associated with the NORSAR Data Processing Center

The purpose of this contribution is to summarize the status of development and future plans for the regional network in northern Europe that contributes seismic data in real time to the NORSAR Data Processing Center. The network is shown in Fig. 7.3.1 and currently comprises the NORESS and ARCESS arrays in Norway, the FINESA array in Finland, the GERESS array in Germany, and the two 3-component stations at Ksiaz and Stary Folwark in Poland. Also summarized in this contribution is the current status of development of the Intelligent Monitoring System (IMS) and plans for the near future.

The new 3-component stations in Poland

A description of the two 3-component stations at Ksiaz and Stary Folwark in Poland is given by Mykkeltveit and Paulsen (1990). The current system, comprising field installations in Poland and associated telecommunications arrangements for real time transmission of data to NORSAR, is shown schematically in Fig. 7.3.2. The system is fully operational as of April 1991, and will enable Poland to take an active part in the GSETT-2 (Group of Scientific Experts' Technical Test number 2) experiment during 22 April – 2 June 1991.

During the fall of 1991, the telecommunication links will be rearranged to include also a satellite ground station in Warsaw for real time reception of data from the two stations in Poland. A Sun Sparcstation-based data acquisition and processing system is also planned for installation at the Institute of Geophysics in Warsaw. It is expected that this will effectively contribute to the broadening of the scientific cooperation between NORSAR and the Institute of Geophysics in Warsaw. Such cooperation is needed in order to acquire relevant information on, e.g., seismicity and wave propagation characteristics in Poland and surrounding areas, for integration into the IMS knowledge base.

The NORESS, ARCESS, FINESA and GERESS arrays

A comprehensive description of NORESS and ARCESS is given in Mykkeltveit et al (1990). These array have been in stable and continuous operation since they were installed in 1984 and 1987, respectively. The uptime statistics provided in the present and past issues of the NORSAR Semiannual Technical Summaries testify to this. There are no plans for any significant modifications to these arrays.

The performance of the somewhat smaller, technically less sophisticated, yet very powerful FINESA array in Finland has recently been described by Uski (1990). Considering the simplicity of the FINESA field installation, its operational stability since the upgrade of the data acquisition system in December 1989 has been remarkable. There are no immediate plans for modifying the FINESA system.

The GERESS array in German Bavaria has been described by Harjes (1990). Results from the processing of GERESS data at NORSAR have been presented by Fyen (1990). Although the quality of data received at NORSAR is not yet entirely satisfactory, the data are being processed continuously and also used experimentally by IMS (see below). The GERESS field system developer is currently concentrating on solving remaining technical problems. Cooperative efforts between NORSAR personnel and scientists from the Ruhr University in Bochum, Germany, currently focus on optimizing the GERESS beam deployment. Again, active cooperation is needed for the purpose of supplementing the IMS knowledge base.

Data from all four arrays will be contributed to the GSETT-2 experiment, along with data from about 50 other single stations and arrays worldwide. This will provide another excellent opportunity to assess the capability of NORESS-type arrays for detection of weak seismic events at both regional and teleseismic distances.

The Intelligent Monitoring System

IMS is a system for joint processing of data from a regional network of arrays and single 3-component stations. IMS has been described in detail by Bache et al (1990), and initial results from operating the system are given by Bratt et al (1990). IMS is distributed between NORSAR and the Center for Seismic Studies (CSS) in Arlington, Virginia, as indicated in Fig. 7.3.2.

The first version of IMS provides for joint processing of data from NORESS and ARCESS. This version has been in operation at NORSAR since January 1990, and event statistics are reported in the Semiannual Technical Summaries. The analysis at NORSAR of regional events for the GSETT-2 experiment is carried out using IMS in its current version.

The IMS system developer SAIC is currently operating an upgraded version of IMS at CSS. This new version allows processing of data from an arbitrary number of arrays and single 3-component stations. Since March 1991, data from NORESS, ARCESS, FINESA and GERESS are jointly and experimentally processed at CSS. According to current plans, this new version of IMS will be installed at NORSAR during the summer of 1991.

S. Mykkeltveit

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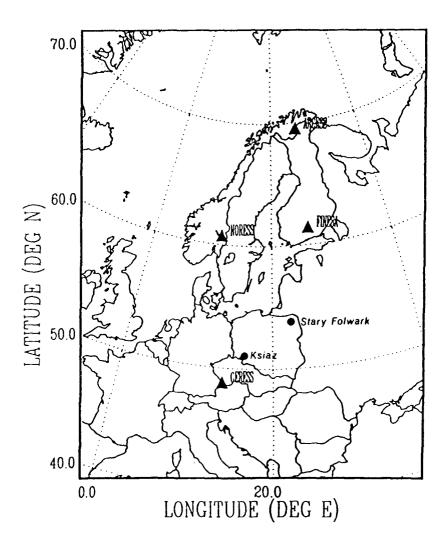


Fig. 7.3.1. The figure shows the network of regional arrays and single 3-component stations in northern Europe contibuting real time data to NORSAR.

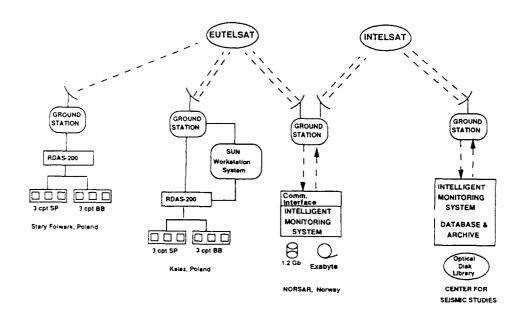


Fig. 7.3.2. The diagram shows the two stations in Poland with associated data communications arrangements. The diagram also shows how data from these stations are made available to the Intelligent Monitoring System, both in Norway and the U.S.

7.4 Multichannel statistical data processing algorithms in the framework of the NORSAR event processing program package

The NORSAR interactive data processing package was developed for the analysis of small aperture seismic array observations. This package, called the Event Processor (EP), has turned out to be a very convenient tool for the daily production of a seismic bulletin. The small aperture seismic arrays NORESS, ARCESS, FINESA and GERESS and their associated data processing facilities are constructed for automatic recording, location and classification of low magnitude regional events and medium magnitude teleseismic events. Signal detection is performed in an online mode, whereas parameter estimation can be performed as an offline procedure using recorded multichannel seismic wavetrains. Now, at NORSAR the automatic system is in full operation, providing seismic signal detection as well as signal parameter estimation. These parameters are: onset time, azimuth, apparent velocity, dominant frequency, signal-to-noise ratio and so on.

This automatic system is operated at a low threshold and inevitably produces numerous "false alarms", i.e., "events" caused by noise bursts. The current seismic bulletin is issued after an interpretation of the detection list, which may be effectively performed using the interactive Event Processing (EP) package. The EP program has a number of graphic routines and interfaces for work with NORSAR data bases. It also comprises some sophisticated and rather time-consuming data processing programs which at present cannot be used in automatic or online processing modes, i.e., without human control. In particular, adaptive statistical multichannel data processing programs have been installed recently in the framework of the EP package. These programs are based on optimal methods of multidimensional time series analysis described in Kushnir ϵt al (1983), Kushnir and Lapshin (1984), Pisarenko ϵt al (1987) and Kushnir ϵt al (1990a, 1990b). They comprise the fellowing procedures of seismic array data processing:

- 1. Selection of the array instruments and data time interval to be processed.
- 2. Filtering and resampling of the data.
- Time-shifting of the channel waveforms with delays corresponding to a given azimuth and apparent velocity of a plane wave propagating across the array.
- Summing of shifted waveforms, i.e., beamforming for a given azimuth and apparent velocity.
- 5. Whitening of the background noise by adaptive filtering of the beam output. This procedure provides signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) gain due

to differences in signal and noise frequency contents, but it distorts the signal waveform.

- 6. Adaptive optimal group filtering (multichannel Wiener filtering) of the array seismograms. This procedure permits high suppression of seismic noise due to its coherency. Theoretically it provides maximum SNR gain without any distortion of seismic signal waveform or frequency contents.
- 7. Adaptive detection of the distinct phases in single channel seismograms or in the output traces of beamforming and optimal group filtering procedures. The detection procedure takes into account the difference between noise on one hand, and signal plus noise on the other, not only in amplitude values but also in power spectra.
- 8. Seismic wave onset time estimation by detection of the moment in time when the wavetrain statistical features are abruptly changed.

Array data processing using the procedures listed above is accomplished in the framework of the EP system with the aid of a specially developed set of commands. The major commands are named GRFADAPT, GRFFILT, ESTDET, ESTON1, ESTON3. Description of these commands and examples of performance are given below.

GRFADAPT and GRFFILT commands

The procedures 1-6 are carried out sequentially by each of two EP system commands: GRFADAPT and GRFFILT. The GRFADAPT command, unlike the GRFFILT command, contains additional adaptation algorithms which have not been listed above. These algorithms are used before the execution of procedures 5 and 7 and accomplish adaptation to the current noise of the beam whitening filter and the optimal group filter. During GRFADAPT command execution, the processed data are regarded as "pure" seismic noise and the autoregressive (AR) model of the beam noise time series and the multidimensional AR model of the array noise time series are estimated. Based on these models, the whitening and optimal group filter coefficients are evaluated. They are stored and used later during GRFFILT command execution.

GRFADAPT and GRFFILT command execution produces seven output traces. The first four of them are the main resulting traces and the last three—auxiliary traces—are needed to check the adaptation quality. These seven output traces are placed on top of the EP system data stack (containing all input and output time series during the data processing). The main traces are:

1. Beam waveform composed of filtered and resampled channel traces for a given azimuth and apparent velocity (OGF beam).

- 2. Whitened beam waveform (OGF Wbeam),
- Optimal group filter waveform calculated using filtered and resampled channel traces as input for a given azimuth and apparent velocity (OGF t-un).
- 4. Whitened optimal group filter waveform (OGF th-w).

The GRFADAPT and GRFFILT procedures also calculate the mean values and variances of the listed output traces and of the input channel traces. The important result of these calculations is the value of the ratios of the adapative optimal group filter (AOGF) output variance to the beam waveform variance and AOGF output variance to the averaged channel trace variance. After GRFADAPT command execution the first ratio characterizes the relative noise suppression by beamforming and optimal group filtering. Due to the signal undistorting feature of these procedures (provided a plane seismic signal wave is arriving with the given azimuth and apparent velocity), this ratio also characterizes the relative SNR gain due to beamforming and the AOG filtering.

Using the GRFADAPT and GRFFILT commands, a report file is created containing the input and output numerical parameter values and description of the processed channel traces. Particularly, this report contains the value of AOGF and the beamforming SNR gain ratio. An example of such a report is shown in Fig. 7.4.1.

The format of the GRFADAPT command is given below:

grfadapt vel [apparent velocity, km/sec] azi [azimuth, degrees]
{filter type} [cutoff frequencies, Hz] factor [resampling factor]

where {filter type} is one of the three character strings: lp, bp, hp, which means low-pass, band-pass and high-pass filter types.

Before the GRFADAPT command is initiated, values of the associated parameters have to be assigned. There are additional numerical parameters which are not specified with the command, and which have the following default vaules:

- 1. Filter frequency response decay factor: $ALPHA = 10^{-4}$,
- 2. Filter impulse response one-side length: IRL = 15;
- 3. Order of beam noise AR model (number of beam-whitening filter coefficients): DARB = 10,
- 4. Number of input array data matrix autocovariance coefficients: LCRC = 6.

- 5. Regularizator of matrix autocovariance function: REG = 10^{-6} ,
- Order of input array data multidimensional AR mode! (one-side length of the optimal group filter): DARGRF = 6,
- 7. Auxiliary parameters: DARARF = 10, DMARF = 20.

Assigning of alternative values for the parameters listed above can be done by the

EP command:

gr [parameter name] [parameter value]

To check the current parameter setting before GRFADAPT and GRFFILT command execution, one should use the EP command:

q gr

There is no need to enter any parameter values before the GRFFILT command execution. The computations are carried out with numerical parameter values and whitening and optimal group filter coefficients stored during the previous GRFADAPT command execution.

The numerical results of the GRFADAPT command execution are written to the disk file GRFREPORT.OUTPUT by the command:

grfreport

The purpose of the array data processing using the GRFADAPT and GRF-FILT procedures is to compute the adaptive, statistically optimal beam which suppresses coherent and incoherent array noise, thus providing the maximum SNR gain without distortion of the signal waveform. These procedures are especially efficient in the case when the signal and coherent noise power spectra are overlapping. In this case they can provide much March SNR gain than bandpass filtering after conventional beamforming.

For this reason, in the first experiments with the GRFADAPT and GRF-FILT procedures in the framework of the EP system, we tried to learn how the program parameter values influence the AOGF SNR gain relative to conventional beamforming SNR gain, when data are processed in a broad frequency band. The main program parameters which influence the quality of the optimal group filter adaptation are 1) the order of the input data multidimensional

AR model, 2) the data frequency band and 3) regularizator of the data matrix covariance function. Table 7.4.1 comprises the results of NORESS noise processing. The 120 sec interval of array noise shown in Fig. 7.4.2 has been used for optimal group filter adaptation.

As one can see from this table, increasing the input data multidimensional AR model order leads to a strong increase of AOGF SNR gain. Nevertheless, it does not seem worthwhile to use a multidimensional AR model order greater than 10-12 because the adaptation procedure becomes time consuming and less stable (especially when a large number of array channels are used). Choosing a higher frequency band leads to diminishing of AOGF SNR gain. This can be explained by the strong coherency of the NORESS noise mainly at low frequencies. Varying the regularizator value from 0 to 10⁻⁴ practically does not affect the AOGF SNR gain.

The GRFADAPT and GRFFILT commands were also tested by processing some low magnitude local event records from the NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA arrays. In these experiments the optimal group and whitening filter adaptations were made using the array noise records preceding the seismic signal wavetrains. The duration of the noise time intervals used for adaptation were from 100 to 150 sec. The main purpose of these experiments was to learn about possible differences in P, S and Lg wave phase extraction by different array data processing algorithms such as conventional beamforming, beam output noise whitening, adaptive optimal group filtering and AOGF output noise whitening. What distinguishes these experiments from those described in our previous reports (Kushnir et al. 1990a; Kushnir et al. 1990b) is the processing of array data in different frequency bands: 0.2-5 Hz, 0.2-10 Hz. and 0.2-20 Hz. Table 7.4.2 comprises the ratios of AOGF output SNR relative to beamforming output SNR and AOGF output SNR relative to averaged channel SNR for different phases being extracted from 7 small local event records. Each phase has been extracted from the noise by the conventional beam and AOGF adjusted for the azimuth and apparent velocity of this phase arrival as given in the NORSAR detection list. One can see that in these experiments the AOGF SNR gain relative to the conventional beamforming gain was between 16.2 and 24.5 dB for the 0.2-5 Hz frequency band, between 12.3 and 24.2 dB for the 0.2-10 Hz frequency band and around 10-11 dB for the 0.2-20 Hz frequency band. Note that the highest AOGF SNR gain of more than 24 dB was achieved on the FINESA records. This is due to the presence in these records of strong, highly coherent, low frequency background noise possibly caused by stormy seashore waves. This noise has been suppressed by the AOGF procedure, but not by conventional beamforming.

Examples of GRFADAPT and GRFFILT output traces as the result of event wavetrain and preceding noise processing are given in Figs. 7.4.3-7.4.5. In some of these examples, the AOGF and whitened beam output wavetrains are similar. One may conclude that the adaptive whitening procedure after

conventional beamforming can provide the same results as the AOGF procedure (while being less time consuming). But this inference is true only for body waves of local low magnitude events, which as a rule have high frequency contents. Power spectra of surface waves and teleseismic body waves are often overlapping with those of coherent seismic noise. In this case, the AOGF procedure has a strong advantage over other filtering procedures since it retains the signal undistorted.

ESTDET command

Adaptive detection of distinct phases in the wavetrain is accomplished by the EP command ESTDET. This procedure is based on the optimal statistical algorithm described in Pisarenko et al (1987). During the ESTDET command execution the time interval of the data being processed is divided into two parts. The data in the first interval are regarded as "pure" noise and its AR model is estimated ("noise AR model"). The data in the second interval are presumed to contain the seismic phases. The detection of these phases is carried out using a moving time window. The detection algorithm consists of calculation of the simplified Bayesian test statistic for the hypothesis: a) the AR model of time series inside the moving time wil dow is the same as the noise AR model versus the hypothesis: b) these two models are different (Kushnir at al, 1983). The ESTDET program takes as input the wavetrain at the top of the EP system data stack and produces nine new traces which in turn are placed on the top of this data stack. Eight of these traces contain the values versus time of the detection statistics calculated using data in a moving time window. These statistics are derived from four slightly different versions of the simplified Bayesian test described above. The first four traces are the statistical values in logarithmic scale, the next four are the same values in linear scale. The ninth output trace is the auxiliary trace for noise AR modelling checking. The detection triggering of the seismic phases is now performed in an interactive mode by comparing the detection statistic value with the threshold chosen to provide the acceptable false alarm rate. But it would clearly be straightforward to develop a special EP command for automatic phase detection triggering.

The ESTDET command format is

estdet start [first point, sec.] end [last point, sec.] w [window length, sec.] o [AR model order] noise [noise interval length, sec.]

where "start" and "end" are the first and last points of the trace being processed (in sec. relative to the initial point of this trace); "w" is the width of the moving time window, "noise" is the length of the first part of the data time interval used for the noise AR model estimation.

Examples of ESTDET command output traces and input wavetrains are

given in Figs. 7.4.6-7.4.8.

ESTON1 and ESTON3 commands

The moving window detection procedure points out those time intervals where seismic wave phases are present. The next stage of the signal processing is an estimation of phase parameters. Among the most important parameters needed for event source location are the wave phase onset times. For rough estimates of these times, the moments of detection triggering may be used. But for precise estimation of each phase onset time, special statistical procedures have been developed (Pisarenko et al, 1987). In the framework of the EP system, this procedure is realized as two commands: ESTON1 and ESTON3. The first command is intended for single component trace processing. This may be the beam or AOGF output trace or a "raw" array single channel wavetrain. The second command is intended for 3-component seismogram processing with the purpose of onset time estimation. Both procedures are based on maximum likelihood algorithms for estimation of the moment in time when the time series AR model parameter values abruptly change. The ESTON1 procedure takes into account changing of the time series variance and frequency contents at the moment in time when the seismic phase arrives. The ESTON3 procedure also takes into account changs in the 3-dimensional time series polarization features at this moment.

Both commands use the traces at the top of the EP system data stack as input: ESTON1 takes the upper trace, ESTON3 — the three upper traces. Both commands produce one output trace containing the onset time likelihood function calculated for data inside a given time interval. After command execution, this trace is placed on the top of the EP data stack.

The ESTON1 and ESTON3 command format is:

eston1(3) start [first point, sec.] end [last point, sec.]
w [min. window length] o [AR model order]

where "start" and "end" are the first and last points of the wavetrain being processed (in sec. relative to the initial point of the trace); "w" is the minimum width of the data window for the AR model estimation. The onset time likelihood function is calculated for the data inside the time interval (start + w, end - w) (in sec. relative to the trace initial point).

Examples of ESTON1 output traces for different types of seismic wave phases are given in Figs. 7.4.9-7.4.11. The onset time values given in these figures as the arguments of the likelihood function absolute maximums coincide very well with the results of visual interactive analysis using the EP system's graphic options.

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Frequency Band	Order of Multidimensional AR Model			
(Hz)	6	8	12	
0.2 - 5	16.7	17.9	18.8	
	(20.3)	(21.5)	(22.4)	
0.2 - 10	13.2		16.5	
	(16.8)		(20.2)	
0.2 20			14.0	
			(17.5)	

Frequency Band	Regularizator Value			
(Hz)	0	10-6	10-5	10-4
0.2 - 5	18.9 (22.5)	18.8 (22.4)	18.7 (22.3)	
0.2 - 10		16.5 (20.2)		
0.2 - 20	!	14.0 (17.5)		14.2 (17.6)

Table 7.4.1. Adaptive optimal group filtering SNR gain relative to beamforming for different values of the GRFADAPT procedure main parameters. Gain values are given in dB, values in brackets are AOGF SNR gains relative to average single array channel. The results are based upon using 120 sec NORESS noise recordings shown in Fig. 7.4.2. The results of the upper table are obtained with a regularizator value of 10^{-6} , whereas an AR model order of 12 has been used for obtaining the results in the lower table.

Event Origin	Array, Distance	Phase (AR Model	Gain Relative to Beam	Gain Relative to Single Chan.	Frequency Band
Time	(km)	Order)	(dB)	(dB)	(Hz)
		0.44.)	(4D)	(42)	(112)
298:17.51.50	ARCESS	P (12)	16.2	18.8	0.2-5
	508.4	• ,			
282:12.04.13	FINESA	P (12)	21.7	23.3	0.2-5
	287.9				
		P (12)	19.3	21.0	0.2-10
		S (12)	19.6	21.6	0.2 - 5
		S (12)	17.2	19.3	0.2-10
		Lg (12)	17.3	19.4	0.2-10
294:09.13.00	FINESA	P (12)	23.6	25.7	0.2-5
	772.3	C (10)	01.0	22.7	
		S (12)	21.0	23.7	0.2-5
	Nonnea	Lg (12)	20.3	23.1	0.2-5
	NORESS 1302.7	P (12)	18.8	22.9	0.2-5
		S (12)	16.6	21.1	0.2 - 5
		Lg (12)	16.5	21.3	0.2-5
28:09.38.09	NORESS	P (6)	16.0	19.6	0.2-5
	1219.0				
		P (6)	12.3	16.1	0.2-10
		P (6)	10.1	13.8	0.2 - 20
		P (8)	10.9	14.6	0.2 - 20
	FINESA	P (12)	23.1	24.3	0.2 - 5
	1771.0				

Table 7.4.2. SNR gains of adaptive optimal group filtering relative to beamforming based on processing of local event phases.

Event Origin Time	Array Distance (km)	Phase (AR Model Order)	Gain Relative to Beam (dB)	Gain Relative to Single Chan. (dB)	Frequency Band (Hz)
292:12.31.45	FINESA 164.4	P (6)	14.6	17.6	0.2-1
		P (12)	16.3	19.4	0.2-10
	ARCESS 390.4	P (12)	16.4	20.8	0.2-10
294:19.32.03	FINESA 259.0	P (12)	24.5	26.0	0.2-10
	NORESS 564.6	P (12)	17.9	21.8	0.2 - 5
		S (12)	16.0	19.8	0.2 - 5
		Lg (12)	15.7	20.0	0.2 - 5

Table 7.4.2. cont.

```
Output from GRFADAPT:
                                                              (P_n - phase, 0.2-5. Hz)
   Start time: 1990-282:12.02.50.0 | Seconds: 120.00 (bata time interval)
   Input rarmeters:
   Filter type:-1
                                    (low-pass(lp)=-1,band pass(bp)=0,high pass(hp)=1)
                    : 5.25
: 20.00
: 20.00
                                    (lp,hp-filters cut frequency, hz)
(up-filter low cut frequency, hz)
   ECH
   FLH
                    (up-filter-high cut frequency, hz)

15 (one-side length of the filter impulse response)

0.00010 (decay factor of the filter frequency response)
   FHH
   IRL
   ALPHA
                    : 153.80
: 7.80
                                    (accay factor of the filter frequency response (azimuth of the seismic phase to be extracted) (apparent velocity of this seismic phase)
   AZIMUTH
   VELOCITY
   DARB
                      10
                                    (order of a beam noise AR-model) (number of autocovariance matrises)
   LCRC
                       6
                       0.000001(regularizator value)
   REG
   DARGRE
                       6
                                    (order of the data multidimensional AR-model)
                    : 10
   DARARF
                                    (auxiliary parameter)
                    : 20
                                   (auxiliary parameter) (resampling factor)
   DMARF
                       4
   Output parameters:
                    : 1193
                                   (number of the data samples being processed)
   AVCHPOW
                        0.1380 (averaged dispersion of the channel traces)
                        0.0000 (mean value of the beam trace, m)
0.0946 (dispersion of the beam trace, of)
   BMEAN
   BPOW
   IERLBLD
                        0
   IERMLD
                        Õ
                                    (computation errors, error=1, otherwise=0)
   IERGLD
                        Λ
                                     0.0006 (m and \sigma^2 of the AOGF output trace) 1.0128 (m and \sigma^2 of the whitehed output trace) 0.0007 (m and \sigma^2 of the auxiliary output trace) 0.0006 (m and \sigma^2 of the auxiliary output trace) 23.311 (AOGF SNR gain relative averaged channel) 21.672 (AOGF SNR gain relative beam, times, db)
   GRTUN (M/P):
                        0.0003
   GRTW (M/P):
                        0.0098
   GRAUN (M/P):
                        0.0000
                       0.0006
214.33
   GRMUN (M/P):
  Gain (avch):
  Gain (beam); 146.95
          (Description of the array data being processed)
Channel FIN_AO_sz
                                  X(N-S) ELEV
-85.0 138.0
0.0 138.0
                                                         TDEL
                                                                   CHMEAN
                                                                                    CHPOW
                   -180.0
                                            138.0
138.0
                                                       0.211
                                                                                    0.1287
 FIN_A1_sz
                       0.0
                                                       0.211
                                                                   -0.0181
                                                                                   0.1421
FIN A2 sz
FIN B1 sz
                   -308.0
                                            162.0
165.0
159.0
                                -353.0
-37.0
                                                                   -0.0085
                                                                                   0.1308
                    275.0
                                                       0.252
0.371
                                                                   -0.0074
                                                                                    0.1264
FIN_B2_sz
FIN_B3_sz
                    121.0
                                -599.0
                                                                   -0.0053
0.0071
                                                                                   0.1280
                   -474.0
-764.0
                                -555.0
-85.0
                                            176.0
158.0
                                                       0.292
FIN_B4_sz
                                                                   -0.0167
0.0206
                                                       0.143
                                                                                   0.1171
FIN_B5_sz
FIN_B6_sz
                   -436.0
83.0
                                 257.0
277.0
                                            143.0
                                                       0.098
                                                                                   0.0913
                                            147.0
158.0
                                                       0.153
                                                                   -0.0255
-0.0223
                                                                                   0.1501
FIN_C1 sz
FIN_C2 sz
FIN_C3 sz
FIN_C4 sz
FIN_C5 sz
                  -1064.0
-1110.0
                                -657.0
                                                                                   0.1398
                                 226.0
                                            138.0
138.0
                                                                   -0.0460
                                                                                   0.1368
                   -162.0
629.0
                                                       0.000
                                                                   -0.0100
                                                                                   0.1507
                                 420.0
                                            138.0
                                                       0.182
                                                                   -0.0373
                                                                                   0.1256
                                -518.0
                                                       0.413
                                                                   -0.0160
                                                                                   0.1374
FIN C6 sz
                   -185.0
                              -1108.0
                                            138.0
                                                       0.460
                                                                   -0.0329
                                                                                   0.2375
```

Fig. 7.4.1. Example of a GRFREPORT.OUTPUT file.

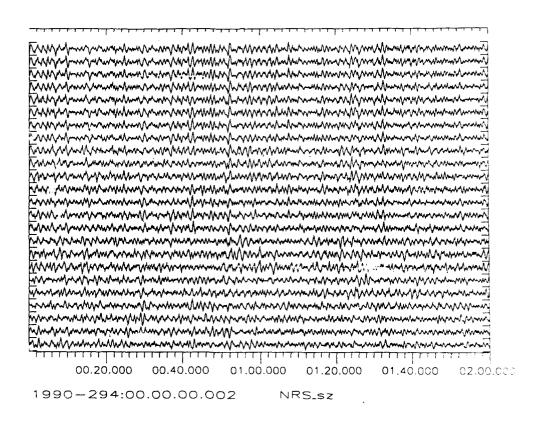


Fig. 7.4.2. NORESS noise recordings used for studying the influence of GR-FADAPT parameter values on SNR gain.

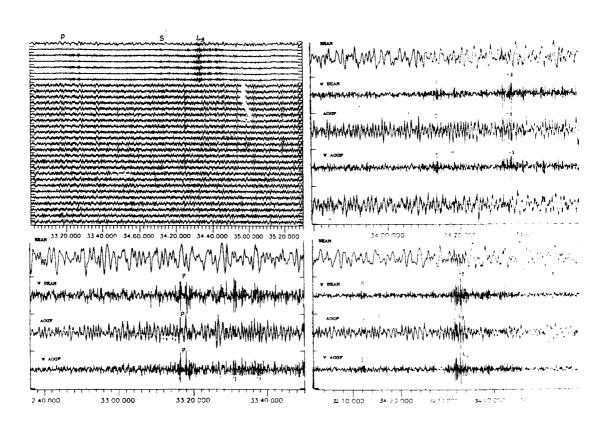


Fig. 7.4.3. Extraction of the main seismic phases from an event recorded at FINESA (1990:294:19.32.03, distance 259.0 km). (a) Input and main output traces of the GRFFILT procedure adjusted for Lg-phase extraction; (b), (c), (d) main output traces of the GRFFILT procedures adjusted for P, S and Lg-phase extraction. 0.2-5 Hz band processing.

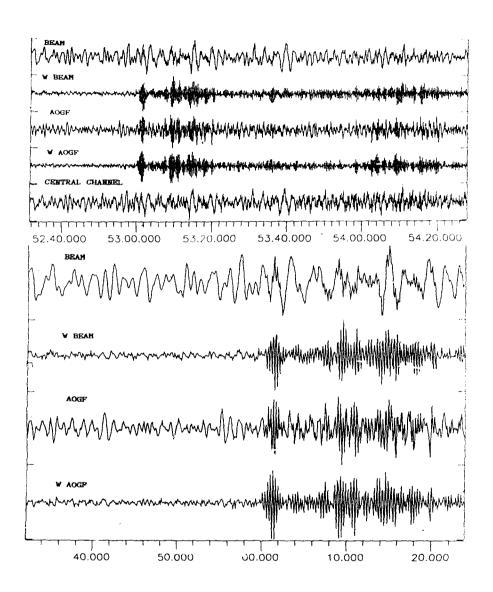


Fig. 7.4.4. Output traces of GRFFILT (0.2-5 Hz band) procedure adjusted for P-phase extraction from ARCESS recordings of a small regional event (1990:298:17.51.50, distance 508.4 km). Note the difference between P-phase waveforms of the AOGF, Whitened beam and Whitened AOGF output traces which implies a shift of onset time estimates.

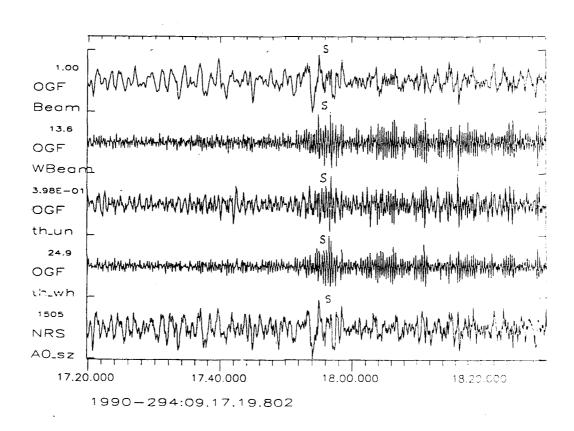


Fig. 7.4.5. Extraction of the S-phase from NORESS recordings of a regional event (1990:294:09.13.00, distance 1302.7 km); 0.2-5 Hz band processing.

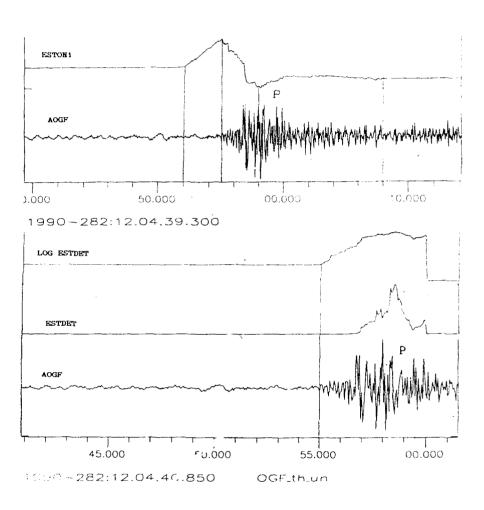


Fig. 7.4.6. P-phase detection and onset time estimation using the AOGF output trace of a FINESA local event recording (1990:282:12.04.13, distance 149.2 km).

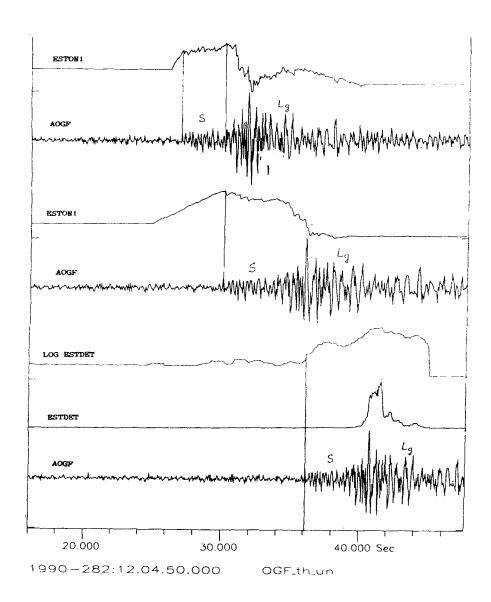


Fig. 7.4.7. S and Lg phase detection and onset time estimation using the Λ OGF output trace of the local event described in Fig. 7.4.6.

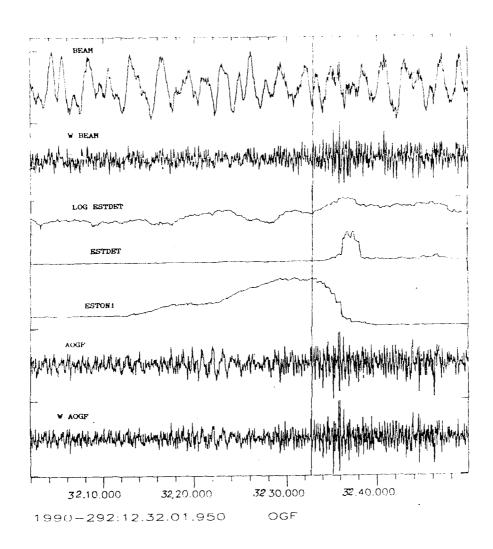


Fig. 7.4.8. P-phase detection and onset time estimation using the AOGF output trace from FINESA recordings of a small local event (1990:292:12.31.45.0, distance 166.4 km).

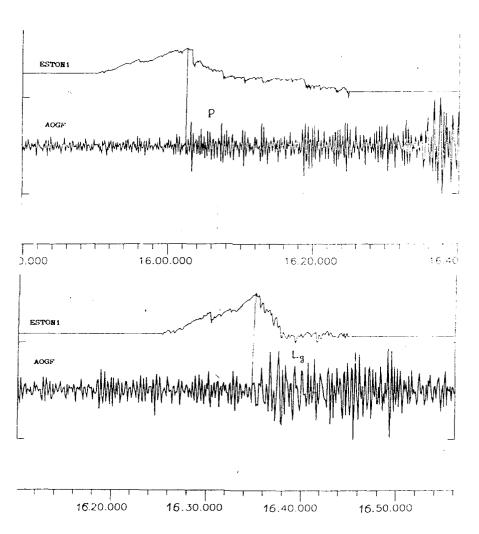


Fig. 7.4.9. P-phase and Lg-phase onset time estimation using the output of the AOGF procedure adjusted for Lg-phase extraction from FINESA recordings of a regional event (1990:294:09.13.00, distance 772.3 km).

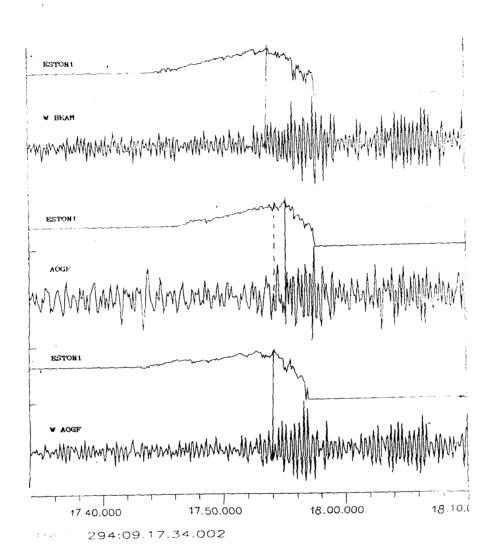


Fig. 7.4.10. S-phase onset time estimation for the event described in Fig. 7.4.5, using the Whitened Beam, the AOGF and the Whitened AOGF output traces. The time shifts of the estimates may be explained by the influence of the whitening filter impulse response.

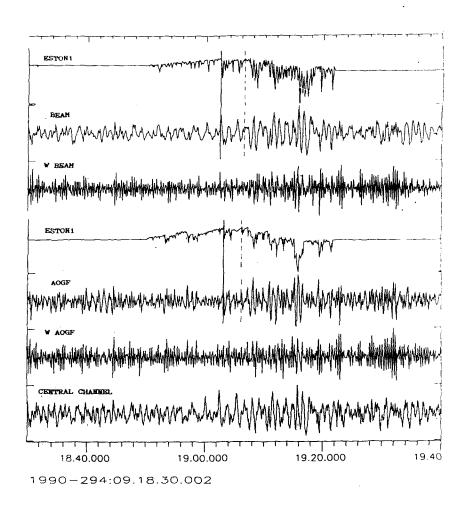


Fig. 7.4.11. Extraction of the Lg-phase from the recording described in Fig. 7.4.5 and onset time estimation of this phase using the beam and the AOGF output traces.

7.5 A 2-dimensional finite difference approach to modeling seismic wave propagation in the crust

Introduction

It is well known that the direct, discrete solution of the elastic wave equation constitutes an excellent platform for synthetic seismogram analysis as all propagation effects are included in the solution (e.g., see Mooney, 1983). A practical realization of this approach has been problematic until recently due to limitations imposed by currently available computers. This being said, we will report below on 2-dimensional (2D) finite difference seismogram synthetic experiments which have been achieved through cooperative efforts with scientists at IBM Bergen Scientific Centre (Bergen, Norway).

Elastic wave modeling formulation

The basic equations governing wave propagation in a continuous elastic medium are the momentum conservation and the stress-strain relation. Following Achenbach (1975), in the velocity-stress formulation, these are given by

$$\rho \frac{\partial}{\partial t} v_j = f_j + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_\ell} \sigma_{j\ell}, \quad j, \ell = 1, \dots, J$$
 (1)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \sigma_{jj} = \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\ell}} v_{\ell} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}} v_{j}, \quad j, \ell = 1, \dots, J$$
 (2)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \sigma_{j\ell} = \mu \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} v_\ell + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_\ell} v_j \right), \quad j, \ell = 1, \dots, J, \quad j \neq \ell$$
 (3)

where Einstein's summation convention is used. J is the dimensionality of the problem, ρ is density, and λ and μ are Lamé's parameters. f_f are body forces and v_j and $\sigma_{j\ell}$ are velocities and stresses, respectively.

Numerical discretization

Spatial partial differentiation is achieved through cost-optimized, dispersion-bounded, high-order finite difference operators on a staggered grid. For time stepping a leap-frog technique is used. The discretization of the elastodynamic equations with two staggered numerical space differentiators, σ^{\pm} , applied as in Levander (1988) to stresses and particle velocities leads to:

$$\rho_{j}^{+}\left\{V_{j}^{+}(t+\Delta t/2)-V_{j}^{+}(t-\Delta t/2)\right\}=\Delta t\left\{F_{j}^{+}(t)+\delta_{j}^{+}S_{jj}(t)+\sum_{\substack{l=1\\l\neq j}}^{J}\delta_{l}^{-}S_{jl}^{++}(t)\right\}, j,l=1,...,J$$

$$\begin{split} S_{jj}(t+\Delta t) - S_{jj}(t) &= \lambda \Delta t \sum_{r=1}^{J} \delta_{r}^{-} V_{r}^{+}(t+\Delta t/2) + 2\mu \Delta t \delta_{j}^{-} V_{j}^{+}(t+\Delta t/2), \quad j,l=1,...,J \\ S_{il}^{++}(t+\Delta t) - S_{jl}^{++}(t) &= \mu_{jl}^{++} \Delta t \{ \delta_{j}^{+} V_{l}^{+}(t) + \delta_{l}^{+} V_{j}^{+}(t) \}, \quad j,l=1,...,J, \quad j \neq l \end{split}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} V_j^+(t) &= v_j(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_j/2, t), \quad F_i^+(t) = f_j(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_j/2, t), \\ S_{jj}(t) &= \sigma_{jj}(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad S_{jl}^{++}(t) = \sigma_{jl}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_j/2 + \mathbf{h}_l/2, t), \\ \rho_j^+ &= \rho(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_j/2), \quad \lambda = \lambda(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mu = \mu(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_{jl}^{++} = \mu(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_j/2 + \mathbf{h}_l/2). \end{aligned}$$

$$\delta_j^+ q(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{L^+/2} d_{2\ell-1}^+ \frac{q(\mathbf{x} + \ell \mathbf{h}_j) - q(\mathbf{x} - (\ell-1)\mathbf{h}_j)}{\Delta x_j} \cong \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_j} (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{h}_j/2),$$

$$\delta_j^- q(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{L^-/2} d_{2\ell-1}^- \frac{q(\mathbf{x} + (\ell-1)\mathbf{h}_j) - q(\mathbf{x} - \ell \mathbf{h}_j)}{\Delta x_j} \cong \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_j} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{h}_j/2).$$

Here $\mathbf{h}_{(j)}$ is the unit vector in the jth direction, λ , μ and S_{ij} are defined at the nodes of the Cartesian mesh, ρ_j^+ , V_j^+ and F_j^+ and defined at the links connecting the nodes and $S_{j\ell}^{++}$ and $\mu_{j\ell}^{++}$ are defined at the centers of the "plaquettes", σ^\pm are numerical differentiators of coefficients $d_{2\ell-1}^\pm$, q is here velocity or stress and L^\pm is the length of the operator. For the numerical dispersion relations, the stability limit and bandwidth introduced By the discretization, the reader is referred to Squazzero et al (1990).

Absorbing and free surface boundary conditions

By necessity, the numerical modeling limits the medium, and to reduce ar tificial reflections from the numerical boundaries, the velocities and stresses are multiplied by exponentially decreasing terms near the edges. For this procedure to be efficient, relatively large models are required, that is, relatively large spatial distances to the wedges and this in 3D modeling would be computationally very demanding. In the latter case we have experimented with boundary operators recently introduced by Higdon (1990,1991), which at x=0 read like

$$\prod_{j=1}^{m} \left(\cos \alpha_j \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - c_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)$$

which will absorb perfectly a plane wave travelling towards the boundary at angle

 α_j and speed c_j . m is the order of the operator. Similar operators are used on the other boundaries. The condition for this method to be useful is that the number of time steps is small enough not to exceed a certain limit, after which the method will appear unstable.

On the top free surface, we use the vanishing stress conditions for a free boundary

$$\vec{n} \cdot T = 0 \tag{4}$$

Here \vec{n} is the outward normal unit vector on the surface and T is the stress tensor. To get computationally tractable conditions, we assume the free top surface to be locally plane. Then $\vec{n} = \vec{k}$, where \vec{k} is the unit vector in the vertical z-direction. x and y are horizontal coordinates. (4) then leads to

$$\sigma_{zx} = \sigma_{zy} = \sigma_{zz} = 0 \tag{5}$$

To increase the generality, one may assume a topographic relief as the free surface. By relaxing the requirement of the surface being locally plane, one assumes a given slope locally in each spatial direction. The resulting conditions on the stresses become more complex, though tractable, as demonstrated by Jih et al (1988).

At present we have not incorporated the "topography" free surface in our software.

Crustal wave propagation 2D finite difference synthetics

The task of "adapting" the 2D FD software for handling of seismological problems has been rather time consuming. Hence, only recently have we been able to produce seismic synthetics for crustal wave propagation. We can also handle 3D cases, but their seismological relevance at present is limited. Anyway, in the following we will present some examples of synthetic seismograms.

Model description and data analysis

Basically we use a homogeneous crust of thickness 30 km and $P_{vel}=6.5$ km/sec, which besides serves as a reference model. The options for perturbing this model comprise multilayering, pic rewise linear velocity gradients, large-scale discontinuities like Moho bump(s), but so far no randomized scatter inclusions. A schematic model illustration is shown in Fig. 7.5.1. Although the source (point or line source) could be at any depth, the sensors are always on the free surface. Any sensor configuration could be used, although our performance is for a 10-element line array with 0.4 km sensor interspacing, which is convenient for velocity decomposition of the synthetics. Occasionally we use a sensor spacing of 5 km in order to visualize the distance variability in the records.

An objection against 2D solutions of the elastic wave equation is that all propagation effects are included and hence it would be difficult to isolate the response

of a specific body within the synthetic wavetrain. To overcome this kind of problems, we would process the synthetic records in a manner similar to that used for real recordings. Principal techniques used are frequency wavenumber (f-k), semblance and 3-component polarization analysis (e.g., see Husebye and Ruud, 1989). Occasionally we would make comparisons with "ray tracing" synthetics for which more specific contribution effects are specified a priori.

Results

Examples of crustal synthetics using the procedure outlined above are shown in Figs. 7.5.2, 7.5.3 and 7.5.4. The following comments apply.

Figs. 7.5.2 and 7.5.3: Bump on Moho -- ranges 160 km and 210 km

In Figs. 7.5.2b and 7.5.3b the homogeneous cases are shown, while the bump cases are shown in Figs. 7.5.2a and 7.5.3a, respectively. A comparison here gives that the Moho bump does not strongly change the records, which is also rather obvious from a corresponding comparison of the semblance plots in Figs. 7.5.2c,d and Fig. 7.5.3c,d, respectively. The dominant features in the synthetics appear to be crustal reverberations (PmP), which are particularly abundant since the signal source was put at a depth of 10 km.

Fig. 7.5.4: Bump on Moho -- ranges 100-200 km

In this case, we used a linear velocity gradient in the crust and besides used a sensor spacing of 5 km in order to visualize distance-dependent changes in the records. As observed, the Pg-phase dominates the first part of the records, then comes the corresponding S-phases and finally multimode Rayleigh-type of waves. With the much larger sensor spacing the semblance resolution is very high, as illustrated in Fig. 7.5.4c.d. We have also tested the signal polarity, which further adds weight to the realism of the 2D FD synthetics displayed.

Discussion and future work

The synthetics generated seemingly include all major phases, while in comparison to real records the body wave coda is weak to nonexistent. As demonstrated, long wavelength heterogeneities like a bump on Moho do not contribute much in this respect. This in turn implies that the cumulative propagation effect of randomly distributed scatterers are likely to be of importance.

A specific advantage with our technique for 2D synthetic seismogram calculations is flexibility in choosing model parameters. In our future work, some sort of a reference crustal model would be established. Then we would systematically change the velocity structure both above and below Moho. Scatterers would be introduced at various parts of the travel path, and their effect would be visualized partly but taking the difference between "homogeneous" and "inhomogeneous" synthetics. Finally, we would naturally compute synthetics on the basis of crustal

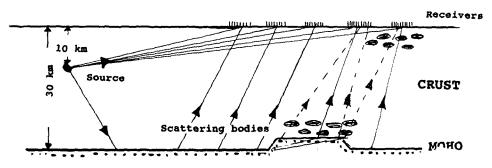
results presented in Section 7.6.

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2D ELASTIC MODELLING - OSLO RIFT



PROCESSING: F-K; SEMBLANCE AND 3C ANALYSIS

OBSERVATION: NORESS ARRAY RECORDINGS

Fig. 7.5.1. Simple one-layered crustal model used initially for computing synthetic seismograms based on finite difference solutions in 2-dimensional (2D) of the elastic wave equations. The point source is located at a depth of 10 km: crustal and sub-Moho velocities are 6.5 km/sec and 8.2 km/sec, respectively. Corresponding density values are 2.85 kg/m³ and 3.34 kg/m³. The Moho comp is 50? wide and 2 or 4 km high. Horizontal distance from source to nearest edge of Moho bump is 1.0 km. So far scatter inclusions with contrasts in velocity and density of the order of 2.5 per cent have not been included.

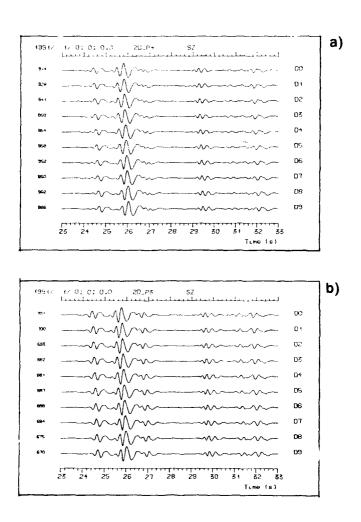
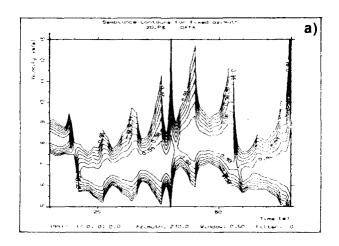


Fig. 7.5.2a and b. 2D FD synthetics for the model shown in Fig. 7.5.1. In figure b, the Moho bump of 2 km has been removed. The horizontal distance from source to the nearest sensor is 160 km while sensor interspacing is 200 m.



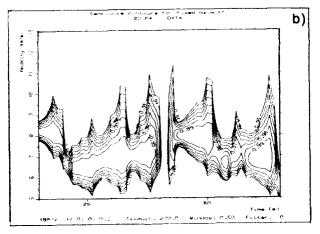
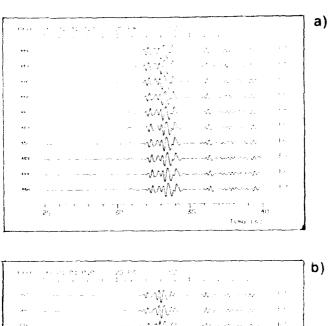


Fig. 7.5.3a and b. Semblance velocity (VESPAGRAM) analysis of the synthetics displayed in Fig. 7.5.2a and b, respectively. Seemingly the effect of a bumpy Moho is marginal. Also, "ray paths" within the crust and sub Moho are easily identified from this velocity plot.



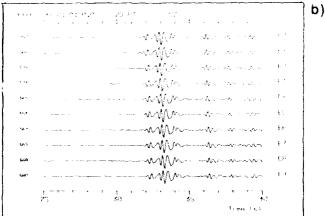
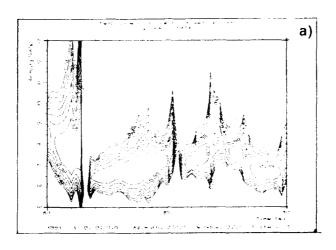


Fig. 7.5.4a and b. Same as for Fig. 7.5.2, but now the horizontal distance to the nearest sensor is $210~\mathrm{km}$.



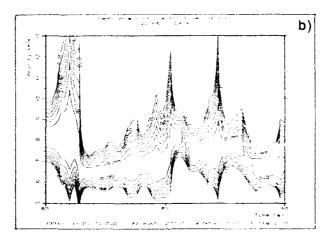


Fig. 7.5.5a and b. Semblance velocity (VLSPAGRAM) analysis for the synthetics shown in Fig. 7.5.4.

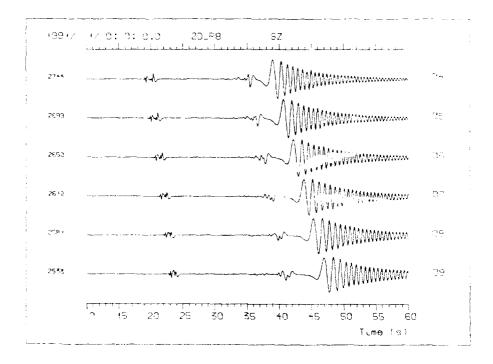


Fig. 7.5.6a. Crastal 2D LD synthetics of 60 sec duration. In this case the point source is just below the surface and the P velocity increases linearly from 6.2 to 7.0 km/sec at the bottom of the crust. Below Moho the P velocity increases linearly from 8.2 to 8.1 km/sec from 30 to 40 km. Below 40 km the velocity is fixed at 8.4 km/sec. Distance range is 115–140 km with a 5 km interspacing of sensors.

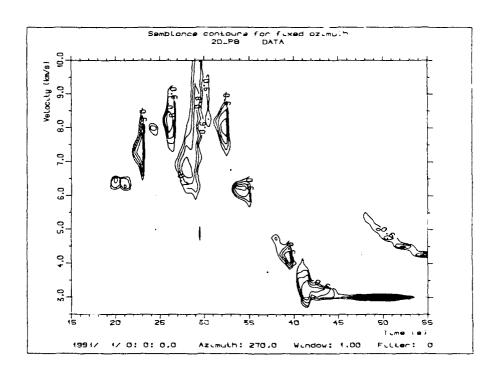


Fig. 7.5.6b. Semblance velocity (VESPAGRAM) analysis of the synthetics displayed in Fig. 7.5.6a. The first part of the synthetics is dominated by crustal reverberations (phase velocities above 8.0 km/sec hardly seen). The Pg-phase around 35 sec preceding the S-wave at around 39 sec is a commonly observed feature. Dispersive Rayleigh waves are also synthesized. Time reference is tied to sensor 06.

7.6 Crustal thicknesses in Fennoscandia — An overview

Background

Crustal studies became popular among seismologists in the Feunoscandinavian countries some three decades ago, and still remain so. The numerous seismic surveys conducted within this region are aimed at mapping crustal structures in ever-increasing detail. We have reviewed the knowledge accumulated from these studies and made a new crustal thickness map with contour intervals of 2 km for Fennoscandinavia. In some areas the sediment thicknesses exceed 10 km, so it is important to differentiate between Moho depths and the crust crystalline thicknesses. Hence for the southern parts of Fennoscandinavia, notably Denmark and adjacent seas, an additional map of crystalline caustal thicknesses was made. Below, we will present the major results from this crustal study, while for details we refer to a forthcoming paper by Kinck et al (1991).

Geological Framework

Geographically, the Fennoscandinavian part of the Baltic Shield comprises the Kola Peninsula (including the White Sea), Finland, the Scandinavian Peninsula, Denmark and adjacent seas (Skagerrak, Kattegat, the Baltic Sea and parts of the Barents Sea)In geological terms, this area (Fig. 7.6.1) exhibits a variety of different tectonic provinces, ranging in age from Archean to Permian. The more recent opening of the North Atlantic, commencing some 56 Ma ago, affected only peripheral parts of the shield, that is, the coastal areas of western and northern Norway.

Crustal profiling Moho depth mapping

The principal aims of crustal profiling surveys are crustal thicknesses and velocity-depth distributions above and below Moho. The former parameter seems well constrained in view of small differences of the order of 2/3 km either between intersecting profiling lines or between reflection and refraction lines. Regarding velocity depth distributions the reflection profiling data have poor resolution. The refraction profiling data have relatively good resolution although the inversion schemes in general use do not give unique results. It suffices here to mention that different groups of researchers using the same set of observational data seldom produce the same velocity-depth distribution. The inherent problem here is that the identification and picking of secondary phase arrivals often are difficult and hence the final solution is not well constrained. Kinematic ray tracing is not too helpful in this respect since amplitude information and scattering contributions are mostly ignored. Also, there appears to be a significant improvement in the published profiling results from the mid-seventies and onwards, reflecting better recording instrumentation (digital), denser sampling and the use of more sophisticated analysis and interpretational methods. These brief comments on the

reliability of seismic reflection and refraction profiling results should be kept in mind when judging the major outcomes of our study (Kinck et al. 1991), namely, a Moho depth map for Fennoscandinavia, thicknesses of the crystalline crust in the southern parts of the region (Denmark and adjacent sea) plus a tabulation of P-velocity depth distributions for selected profiles.

Fennoscandinavian seismic profiling surveys

We have carefully screened the available literature for profiling surveys within Fennoscandinavia, and the outcome of these efforts is tabulated in Table 7.6.1 and displayed in Fig. 7.6.2. Note that data from some of the profiling lines have been reanalyzed and reinterpreted and with few exceptions we only refer to the latest publication in tis regard. A final remark here is that indeed much effort has been invested in the crustal mapping of Fennoscandinavia.

Results: Moho depth and crystalline crustal thickness maps for Fennoscandinavia

In Fig. 7.6.3 the Moho depth map is shown and in Fig. 7.6.4 the crystalline crustal thickness map (limited to Denmark and adjacent seas) are shown. A map similar to that in Fig. 7.6.4 was attempted constructed for the Kola Peninsula area, the White Sea and the western Barents Sea, but at present there are not enough data available for such a task. Anyway, the Moho map in Fig. 7.6.3 is rather detailed, in particular in the areas offshore Norway, as we have been able to incorporate recent results from marine seismic reflection surveys. The crustal thickening is in general perpendicular to the coastal areas of southern and western Norway, and the Kola Peninsula, but less so for the interplate Baltic Sea. In general, the oldest parts of the Baltic Shield (the major parts of the Fennoscandinavian region) exhibit the greatest crustal thicknesses. This may be expressed in the following form:

$$H = 17.3log(T) - 10.2 \tag{1}$$

where H in km is Moho depth and T is time in Ma.

The sediment thicknesses in the basin areas offshore Norway are often formidable with corresponding thicknesses of the crystalline crust of the order of 15–20 km. There is no obvious correlation with age between the crustal P-velocity depth distribution, although whether we have piecewise negative, zero or positive velocity gradients is likely to affect profoundly seismic wave propagation in the crust. Regarched by the selective variations within Fennoscandinavia, this problem has been studied by tomographic techniques using local seismological bulletin data (e.g., see Bannister et al. 1991). Their major findings are that pronounced low velocity areas are associated with the Caledonide mountains of western Norway and the rift and basin areas offshore Norway. The central parts of the shield are rather homogeneous in this respect. A corresponding tomographic study of crustal velocity variations (Pg and Sg phases) was not attempted since the Pg/Sg ray paths cannot uniquely be determined.

Discussion

Compared to many other continental regions, the results displayed in Fig. 7.6.3 and 7.6.4 are indeed very detailed. On the other hand, structural details are very poorly resolved, which in turn reflects the data at hand; mainly, refraction profiling results. Although these results are not adequate for restraining hypotheses on the tectonic evolution of Fennoscandinavia, we do think that these results may be instrumental in providing a better understanding of seismic records at local and regional distances through synthetic seismogram analysis. In this respect we consider the 2D finited difference technique presented in Section 7.5 to be most suitable since we could incorporate a tilting Moho together with any kind of velocity gradient above and/or below Moho.

A final remark is that the Moho depth variation appears to have a counterpart in the spatial distribution of earthquakes within this region. As is well known, the seismicity is by far largest in the coastal areas of Norway, where the crust is exceptionally thin. Furthermore, all the largest earthquakes, including the his torical ones, have taken place in areas where the crust is thin. In other words, stress accumulations within Fennoscandinavia appear to be insufficient for cracking or causing major earthquakes in areas with thick crust (H > 10 km), which naturally is stronger than the thin crust in the coastal areas. Naturally, there are many areas, including Denmark, with thin crust but seismically quiescent.

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i	1.	1	I .
M -1 - +-1		References	түү
A	Central Statem	Parton and Wood, 1994	he tra
:	Modeli cearch, West coast of Norway	P. Lucaer pers. comm., 1989	Wice/ Pefiar
FALTIO	Baitic, Fitcher	Imasto et al., 1995	Exit rain
	Mare margin	Olatsson, 1964	EST
÷	Cannobe, South Norway	Cassell et al., 1983	Befrac
E1-E5	EUGENO-S, Denmark, Kattegat, SW Sweden	Eugeno-S Working Group, 1988: Lund et al., 1987	Retiac
F1-F3	Fennolora, Sweden	Clowes et al., 1987; Galson and Mueller, 1986	Refrac
(a	Lappland, Sweden	Båth, 1984	befrac
Н	Trondheim-Sundsvall	Vogel and Lund, 197)	Refrac
	Oslo-Troncheim	Kanestram, 1971	Refrac
J	Otta-Arsund	Mykkeltveit, 1980	Retrac
к	Flora-Āsnes	Sellevoll and Warrik, 1971	Refrac
L	Fedje-Grimstad	Sellevoll and Warrik, 1971	Refrac
LOF 1	Lofoten, Norway	Sellevoll, 1983	Refrac
LOF 2	Lofoten, Norway	Drivenes et al., 1984	Refrac
M-N	Oslo Rift	Tryti and Sellevoll, 1977	Refrac
LA-LY	Larvik-Lysekil	Egilson and Husebye, 1991	Refrac
P1-P4	NSDP84-01:04, Viking Graben-worth Sea	Fichler and Hospers, 1989 Hospers and Ediriweera, 1988	Reflec
POLAR	Folar, N.Sweden-Norw.	Luosto et al., 1989	Refrac

Table 7.6.1. Page of 2.

Mapret	Name - Location	References	Typ.
н	Blue Norma	Avedik or al., 1984	Hetro
s	Parents Sea	Davydova et al., 1984	Refrac
SVEKA	Sveka, Finland	Grant and Inacto, 1987	Refrac
LADOGA	Ladoga, Finland/USCR	Borbones et al., 1990	Refrac
T1-T3	Western Barents Sea	Paleton et al., 1991	ETE WH
U1 - U 2	Baltic Sea-Poland	Grad et al., 1991	betra
Y1-Y2	Eastern Norwegian Sea	Planke et al. 1991	ETTE WES
21-26	Kola, USSR		ivita
OAM	Norsar, Norway	Berteusses, 1977	Special
COP HFS KEV KIR KJF KON KRK NUR SOD UME UPP	Copenhagen, Denmark Hagfors, Sweden Kevo, Finland Kiruna, Sweden Kajaani, Finland Kongsberg, Norway Kirkenes, Norway Nurmijärvi, Finland Sodankylä, Finland Umeå, Sweden Uppsala, Sweden	Bungum et al., 1980	Spec r
-	Balticum, USSR	Lubimova, 1980	Refrac
2	Siljan, Sweden	Lund et al., 1988	Reflec
-	Kattegat and S. Sweder	Kornfält and Larsson, 1987	Reflec

Table 7.6.1. Seismic profiling—crustal mapping studies within Fennoscan-dinavia. (Refrac \sim refraction profiling; W.Re \rightarrow wide angle reflection profiling; Spec.r.—long period seismic spectral ratio technique; ESP \sim expanding spread profile). (Page 2 of 2)

Profile	e 5	Profil	e 23	Profil	e F3(G)	Profii	e F3(F)	
	P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)	
()	2.0	0	6.2	0	6.1	0	6.0	
15	4.5	20	6.5	24	6.5	5	6.0	
5.2	5.6	32	6.8	24	6.6	5	6.2	
15	6.2	32	7.2		6.9	20	6.5	
27	6.3	45	7.2	35	7.1	20	0.0	
27	6.7	45	6.8	45	7.4	41	6.9	
3.4	7.0	50	7.4	45	8.1	41	8.1	
34	8.1	50	8.0			* *		
(1)	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)	
Profile	e LOF2	Profil	e Sveka	Profile	e Baltic	Profile	e Ladoga	
Н	P-Vel	11	P	14	P-Vel	11	P-Vel	
		(km)			(km/sec)			
					(KIII/SCC)	(KIII)	(KIII/SCC)	
()	6.1)	6.0	0	6.0	0	6.0	
12	6.1	30	6.5	18	6.7	12	6.0	
12	6.5	30	6.8	30	6.7	12	6.2	
19	6.5	4()	6.8	30	7.1	30	6.5	
19	7	40	7.3	42	7.2	40	6.8	
2.3	f.1	52	7.3	42	8.1	40	8.3	
2.3	8.4	52	6.8	50	8.2			
		55	6.8	50	8.4			
		55	7.9	-				
(5)	(5) (6)		(7)		(8)			
Profile I		Profile	Profile L		Profile D		Profile LA-LY	
H	P Vel	H	P-Vel	H	P-Vel	Н	P-Vel	
(km)	(km/sec)	(km)	(km/sec)	(km)	(km/sec)	(km)	(km/sec)	
0	6.0	0	6.3	0	5.5	0	5.6	
14	6.3	17	6.3	6	-2.5 -6.2	5	5.6 5.6	
14	6.7	17	6.4	6	6.5	5	6.3	
36	6.8	33	6.8	26	6.8			
39	7.3	33	8.1	28	7.5	13	6.3	
39 39	8.0	23	0.1	28 28	7.5 8.1	13	6.8 6.8	
37	0.0			40	0.1	31		
						31	8.1	
(9)		(i0)		(11)		(12)		

Table 7.6.2. Page 1 of 2.

Profil	e E3	Profil	e F2(L)	Profil	e F2(C)	Profil	e F2(B)
			P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)
0	6.1	0	5.8	0	6.1	0	6.1
16	6.4	6	6.0	20	6.2	20	6.2
24	6.5	16	6.3	20	6.7	20	6.7
30	6.7	18	6.5	35	6.7	27	6.3
33	6.9	34	7.0	3.5	8.0	33	7.0
39	7.1	43	7.4			33	8.0
39	8.1	48	7.9				
		48	8.3	~-			
(13)		(14)	1	(15)		(16)	
Profile U1		Profile F1		Profile El		Profile E2	
	P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)		P-Vel (km/sec)
0	22	n	5.2	0	4.1	0	4.0
0	2.2	0	5.2	0	4.1	0	4.0
1.5	2.5	4	5.2	10	5.9	4	5.5
1.5 2.5	2.5 5.2	4 4	5.2 6.0	10 21	5.9 6.5	4	5.5 6.0
1.5 2.5 2.5	2.5 5.2 6.0	4 4 12	5.2 6.0 6.0	10 21 21	5.9 6.5 6.7	4 8 13	5.5 6.0 6.3
1.5 2.5 2.5 19	2.5 5.2 6.0 6.	4 4 12 12	5.2 6.0 6.0 6.7	10 21 21 31	5.9 6.5 6.7 6.8	4 8 13 18	5.5 6.0 6.3 6.7
1.5 2.5 2.5 19 31	2.5 5.2 6.0 6.2 6.9	4 4 12 12 32	5.2 6.0 6.0 6.7 6.7	10 21 21 31 31	5.9 6.5 6.7	4 8 13 18 30	5.5 6.0 6.3 6.7 6.9
1.5 2.5 2.5 19	2.5 5.2 6.0 6.	4 4 12 12	5.2 6.0 6.0 6.7	10 21 21 31	5.9 6.5 6.7 6.8	4 8 13 18	5.5 6.0 6.3 6.7

Table 7.6.2. (abulation of P velocity distributions presumed representative for Fennoscandinavia. The profile notation of Table 7.6.4 is retained and the corresponding part of the respective profiles for which the velocity distributions are valid are marked by dots in Fig. 7.6.2. The sources are not necessarily coinciding with the listings of the original profiling references in Table 7.6.1, and are as follows: Profile S: Davydova et al (1985); Profile Z3, F3(G), F3(F), SVFKA, BALTIC adn LADOGA; Korhonen et al (1990); Profile LOF2: Drivenes et al (1984); Profile F2(r); Lund (1987); Profile F1, F2(B), F2(C); Clowes et al (1987); Profile U1; Grad et al (1990); Profile E1, F2, E3; Gregersen (1991); Profile LA LN: Fgilson and ilusebye (1991); Profile D: Cassell et al (1983); Profile L. I; Kværna (1984). Note that for the two segments of the Fennolora profile F2 and F3, the letter indexing above is from south to north, i.e., F2(B), F2(C), F2(F), F3(F) and F3(G) — in Fig. 7.6.2 no such indexing. (Page 2 of 2)

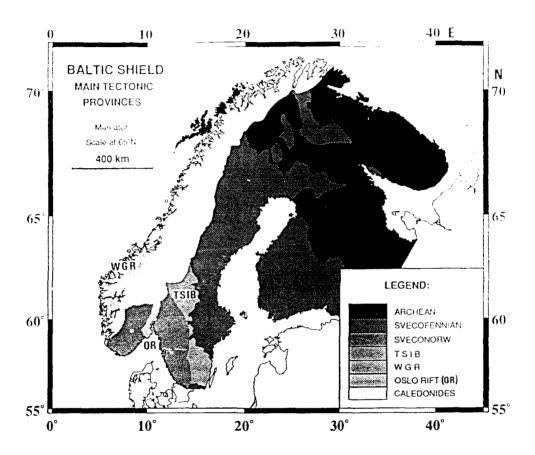


Fig. 7.6.1. Tectonic map of the Baltic Shield showing main age provinces, F.S.I.B.: Trans Scandinavian Igneous Belt. W.G.R.: Western Gneiss Region, Based on Gaal and Gorbatschev (1987).

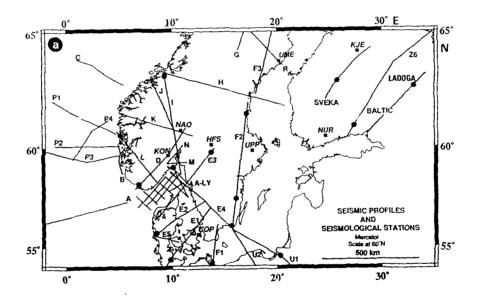


Fig. 7.6.2a. Seismic profiles and seismological stations (squares) in southern Fennoscandinavia. For references, see Table 7.6.1. The black dots mark small profiling areas for which P-velocity - crustal depth distributions are given in Table 7.6.2.

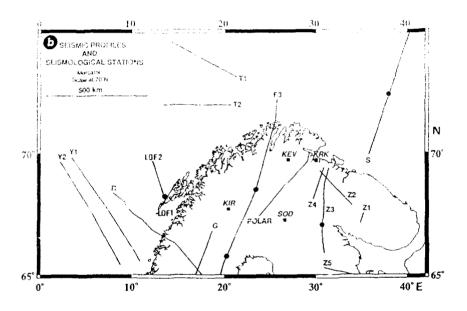


Fig. 7.6.2b. Seismic profiles and seismological stations (squares) in northern Fennoscandinavia. For references, see Table 7.6.1. The black dots mark small profiling areas for which P-velocity—crustal depth distributions are given in Table 7.6.2

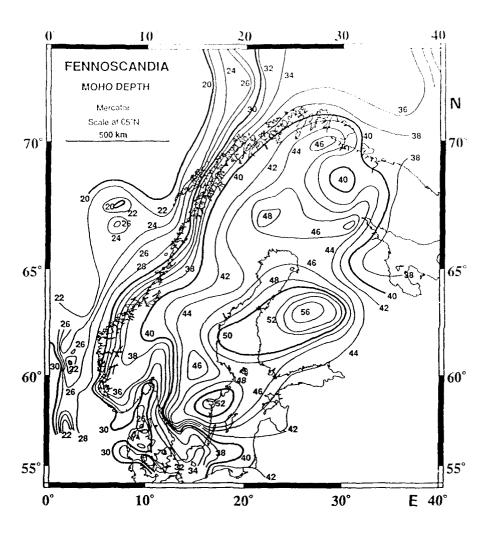


Fig. 7.6.3. Moho depth in Fennoscandinavia below sea level. A 2 km contour interval is used.

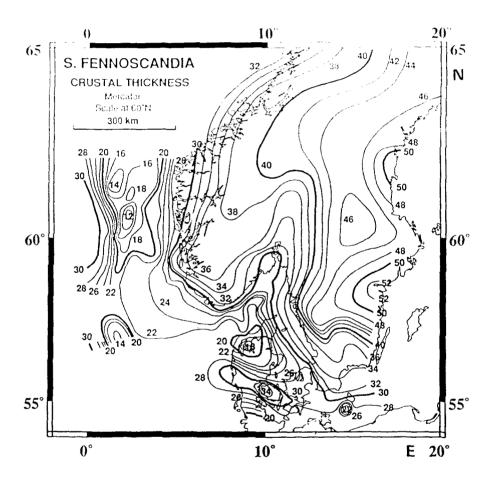


Fig. 7.6.4. Thickness of the crystalline crust in southwestern Fennoscandinavia where comprehensive sediment thickness data were available. A $2~{\rm km}$ contour interval is used.

7.7 Initial development of generic relations for regional threshold monitoring

Introduction

In earlier reports (Kværna and Ringdal, 1990a, Kværna and Ringdal, 1990b) we have demonstrated applications of the threshold monitoring (TM) technique to regions of limited areal extent like mines and nuclear test sites. This method has proven to provide a simple and very effective tool in day-to-day monitoring of areas of particular interest. One of the basic underlying assumptions has been that each target region should be defined such that all events within the region show similar propagation characteristics. This has enabled us to get the necessary magnitude calibration factors from processing previous events with "known" magnitude, using the relation

$$\hat{b}_{i,j} = \hat{m}_j - \log(\hat{S}_{i,j})$$
 $(i = 1, \dots, K; j = 1, \dots, L)$ (1)

where $\hat{b}_{i,j}$ is our estimate of the magnitude correction factor for phase i and event j, \hat{m}_j is the estimate of the magnitude for event j (based on independent networks or knowledge about the explosive charge) and $S_{i,j}$ is our estimate of the signal level at the predicted arrival time of phase i for event j. K is the number of phases considered (there might be several stations and several phases per station), and L is the number of events.

The magnitude correction factor to be used for phase i is then given by

$$b_i = E < \hat{b}_{i,j} > \tag{2}$$

where E denotes statistical expectation. Parameters like window lengths for signal level estimation, travel-times of the different phases, frequency filters and steering delays for array beamforming are taken from processing of the calibration events.

Extension of the TM method to regions where no calibration events are available, requires that we have generic formulas for all variables describing the processing. Such relations will make it possible to monitor new and larger geographical regions, and will in addition enable us to get a more thorough understanding on how events originating in one region influence the threshold in other regions. Applying such generic relations will of course involve a tradeoff where a wider geographical coverage is achieved at some expense with regard to optimized monitoring of limited target area. Thus it should be seen as a supplement, and not a replacement of, the target-specific threshold monitoring.

In the following we present results from a preliminary study on methods for obtaining such generic relations, with special application to the regional Fennoscandian array network.

Phases to consider and their travel-times

A standard method of estimating the magnitude of local and regional events is based on a measurement of the amplitude of the maximum peak in the S-wavetrain (Richter, 1935; Båth, 1981; Alsaker et al. 1990). The NORSAR recordings of Fig. 7.6.1 show that the position of the maximum peak vary strongly from one region to another. Events originating within the Fennoscandian Shield (event 1 and event 5) will usually have the maximum energy associated with the L_g phase (group velocity 3.5 km/s). On the other hand, events with propagation paths crossing the North Sea graben structures (event 4) or events originating in oceanic regions (event 6) will have the their maximum energy associated with the S_n arrival (group velocity about 4.5 km/s). In addition, Kværna and Mykkeltveit (1985) have shown that the regions in which the L_g arrival is the dominant phase are dependent on the frequencies considered. I.e., the S_n phase becomes more dominant as the frequencies increase.

The TM method require that the travel times of the considered phases are given á priori for all target areas. For optimum performance, one phase should be associated with the energy maximum of the wavetrain. From the complexities described above, it is obvious that we cannot obtain generic formulas for the travel-time of this amplitude peak without extensive data analysis and regional mapping. For NORESS recordings, we have from the study of Kyærna and Mykkeltveit (1985) an idea of the geographical regions for which S_n or L_T is the dominant phase, but similar information is currently not available for other seismic arrays and single stations.

From several years of experience with seismic data from local and regional events, we know that the energy associated with the P-phase often exhibits its amplitude maximum several seconds after the initial P onset. This feature is partly illustrated in Fig. 7.6.1. For optimum TM computations, it is also beneficial to make use of the phases for which the travel-time difference is as large as possible. We will therefore in the following proceed with the first arriving P-phase $(P_n \text{ or } P_g)$ and the L_g phase in the TM analysis, using the standard Fennoscandian travel-time tables as the generic formulas. To compensate for the uncertainties in the positioning of the maximum amplitudes of the wavetrain, we will introduce so-called time tolerances. This concept will be outlined in one of the following sections.

Frequency bands

To ensure optimum performance of the TM method, we introduce bandpass filtering of the data in the band where the considered phase is expected to have the largest SNR. These bands are however difficult to predict as large variations occur regarding attenuation properties of the different propagation paths, source

spectra and noise conditions.

In the context of monitoring regions within local and regional distances, the work of Sereno (1991) gives an excellent picture of the average properties of regional phase attenuation, source spectral scaling and backgound noise conditions. From an assumption on the event magnitude M_L and the epicentral distance, we could use his results to predict the best SNR frequency band of a phase.

We will, however, in this preliminary study base our selection of filter bands on statistics from the detection processing of the regional arrays NORESS and ARCESS. The IAS/IMS system (Bache et al, 1990) is used for routine analysis of data from these arrays, and all information concerning the detected seismic phases are stored in a large data base. The statistics on the dominant frequency, i.e., the frequency with the largest SNR, give us an idea on hew the optimum frequency band varies as a function of epicentral distance. The statistics cover both NORESS and ARCESS data from the time interval 1990/01/23 to 1991/04/29.

The P_n (P_g) results are given in Table 7.6.1, and show large variability, especially at distances below 500 km. At larger distances the frequency band 3 to 5 Hz cover the vast majority of the occurrences. To retain simplicity in this preliminary study, we have chosen to use the 3 to 5 Hz frequency band for the first arriving P-phase at all distances. For larger distances this is also in general agreement with predictions based on the results of Serene (1991).

The L_g results given in Table 7.6.2 also show large variability at distances below 500 km. It should be noted that the dominant frequencies for L_g are relative to the preceding S_n coda, and not relative to backgound noise conditions, as was the situation for P_n . We want optimum performance relative to backgound noise conditions, so the L_g statistics should be interpreted with some caution. On the other hand, numerous studies of L_g propagation characteristics (a.o., Baumgardt, 1990; Sereno, 1991; Kværna and Mykkeltveit, 1986) confirm the "low-frequency" nature of L_g at distances above 500 km. Also in this case we will make a compromise and use the 1.5 to 3.5 Hz frequency band for L_g at all distances. This will give close to optimum performance for L_g at longer distances, which is considered the most important for the overall threshold monitoring capability.

Grid definitions and time tolerances

Threshold monitoring of a larger geographical region implies that each target point have to represent a finite surrounding area. If we divide the region to be monitored into a grid, as shown in Fig. 7.6.2, the area surrounding the target point is given by a rectangle as indicated on the same figure.

The travel-time of the considered phase is given by T_{Δ} , where Δ denote the distance from the station A to the target point M. Let T_{Δ_1} be the minimum

travel-time from any point within the rectangle, e.g., M1, and let T_{Δ_2} be the maximum travel-time from any point within the rectangle, e.g., M2.

If the density of the grid is such that the magnitude calibration factors do not vary significantly within the rectangle surrounding each grid point (see Fig. 7.6.2), we use the following procedure for monitoring:

Let S(t) denote the signal level observed at time t. Instead of measuring the signal level at time T_{Δ} as predicted from the position of the target point, we introduce time tolerances such that

$$S(T_{\Delta}) = \max(S(t)) \tag{3}$$

where $t \in [T_{\Delta_1}, T_{\Delta_2}]$. Thereby the estimated signal level can be said to represent an upper limit for any sources within the rectangle. The time tolerances can also be used to compensate for uncertainties in the position of the maximum amplitude of the wavetrain, but we note that the resolution of the TM method will be deteriorated if the time tolerances becomes too large.

STA lengths

In determining the optimum STA window length, we need to take three factors into account:

- Average STA during noise conditions.
- Variability of STA during noise conditions.
- Maximum STA value when the signal occurs.

In practice, it is desirable to have a signal-to-noise ratio as large as possible, measured relative to multiples of the noise standard deviation. Our approach toward solving this problem is outlined in the following.

In this initial study, we have chosen to sample the data by 1 second short term-averages (STA) sampled at 1 second intervals. This decision is based on a compromise between data resolution and managable data volumes.

Intuitively, an instantaneous phase with short duration (e.g., P_0) should be represented by an STA averaged of a short time window, whereas the amplitude level of an emergent phase with long duration (e.g., L_2) should be represented by a longer time window. The initial data sampling (4 sec. STA values), allows us to use any integer multiple of 4 second as window lengths for the considered phases.

Let $\widetilde{A}(\Delta t)$ denote the average of the $\log(STA)$ under noise conditions, and let $\sigma(\Delta t)$ be the associated standard deviation. Δt refers to a particular STA

window length. Let $y(\Delta t)$ be what we consider the "worst case" noise situation given by

 $y(\Delta t) = \overline{A}(\Delta t) + x \cdot \sigma(\Delta t) \tag{4}$

Let $S(\Delta t)$ be the maximum of $\log(STA)$ for the signal. We introduce the term "noise damping", $z(\Delta t)$ by the formula:

$$z(\Delta t) = S(\Delta t) - y(\Delta t) \tag{5}$$

The "noise damping" is then a measure of the "effective" signal-to-noise ratio, i.e., how much the signal exceeds the "worst case" noise situation. The optimum STA window length, Δt , is the argument for which the noise damping $z(\Delta t)$ attains its maximum.

To assess the optimum STA window lengths for P_n and L_g and to reveal any distance dependency, we computed maximum signal STA values with different window lengths for events at various epicentral distances.

Using the z-component of the center instrument of NORESS, ARCESS or FINESA, the P_n data were filtered in the 3-5 Hz passband. The starting point of the STA windows were at the predicted arrival time of the P-phase, and to accomodate for uncertainties in the positioning of the amplitude maximum of the P-wavetrain, we introduced a time tolerance of \pm 5 seconds. Information on the P_n data are given in Table 3. The interpolated curves of Fig. 7.6.3 give $S(\Delta t)$ for several events for a set of different window lengths. For this study, the absolute scale of $S(\Delta t)$ is without any significance, so for display purposes, an offset was added to each of the curves. As expected, the shortest window length (1 second) gave the largest $S(\Delta t)$, but there is a distinct difference in the slopes for events above and below 300 km epicentral distance. We will therefore in the following proceed with two average signal curves, one for all events within 300 km of the stations, and another for for the rest.

The noise characteristics for the 3-5 Hz frequency band was obtained from analysis of six 30 minute noise intervals. Information on the noise intervals are given in Table 7.6.4. For consistency with the P_n analysis, a time tolerance of 5 seconds was used. Values of $\overline{A}(\Delta t)$ for all noise samples are given in Fig. 7.6.4, together with the average over all six samples. Similar curves for $\sigma(\Delta t)$ are given in Fig. 7.6.5.

Now turning to the noise damping of the P_n phase for events within 300 km of the station. Fig. 7.6.6 give the noise damping $z(\Delta t)$ for a set of confidence levels $x \cdot \sigma(\Delta t)$ ($z = 1, 2, \dots, 5$), and show that for any choice of confidence level, a 1 second window length will do the best. For events more distant than 300 km from the station, we get the same conclusion as inferred from the results of Fig. 7.6.7. It is clearly possible that a shorter time window than 1 second might further improve the P_n phase, but we have not so far investigated this possibility.

The definition of the "worst case" situation is somewhat arbitrary, but seen in conjuction with the total number of samples per day (86400), the 3σ level is a resonable practical compromise. This means that 99.9% of the data will be below this limit. We also see that for all confidence levels up to 5σ , the conclusion on the best window length for P_n will remain the same.

Similar analysis was conducted for the L_g phase. The data were bandpass filtered between 1.5 and 3.5 Hz, and the center point of the signal analysis window was set at the expected amplitude maximum of the L_g phase (i.e., at a group velocity of 3.5 km/s). To accomodate for uncertainties in the positioning of the amplitude maximum, we used a time tolerance of ± 5 seconds. Details on the L_g phases are given in Table 7.6.3, and the values of $S(\Delta t)$ for events at various distances are shown in Fig. 7.6.8. Also in this case events above and below 300 km show different slopes, and we will in the following proceed with the averages for these two populations.

The data intervals of Table 7.6.4 were also used to assess the noise characteristics of the 1.5-3.5 Hz frequency band. The estimated curves for $\overline{A}(\Delta t)$ are given in Fig. 7.6.9, and the corresponding σ -values are given in Fig. 7.6.10.

The noise damping, computed from "an average" L_g signal within 300 km epicentral distance and from "average" noise conditions, is given in Fig. 7.6.11. When considering the levels 3σ and higher, all window lengths of 5 seconds or less seem to do almost equally well. The corresponding curves for events exceeding 300 km epicentral distance are shown in Fig. 7.6.12. They indicate that an STA window length of 10 seconds will be close to optimum for all confidence levels up to 5σ .

Our preliminary assessment is that a 5 second window length should be used for L_g phases originating from events within 300 km epicentral distance, whereas a 10 second window should be used for events exceeding 300 km.

An increase in the time tolerances will increase the values of $\overline{A}(\Delta t)$, whereas $\sigma(\Delta t)$ will decrease. Fig. 7.6.13 illustrates this for a noise sample in the 1.5-3.5 Hz frequency band using a 10 second STA window length. We see that the value of $\overline{A}(\Delta t) + 3 \cdot \sigma(\Delta t)$ remain almost constant for any time tolerance, implying that the results we obtained with a time tolerance of \pm 5 seconds, also seem to be valid for other choices of time tolerances.

Steering delays and effects of mis-steering

One of the main features of seismic arrays is the ability to improve the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) by beamforming. Instead of computing the STA's from bandpass filtered single component sensors, we steer beams towards each target point, filter them in the appropriate frequency bands, and finally compute the

STA values. In this way, we significantly reduce the noise levels (for uncorrelated noise, by a factor of \sqrt{N} , where N is the number of sensors). Kværna (1989) have estimated the SNR gain, the noise suppression and the signal loss for P-phases, using data from the NORESS array. In the 3-5 Hz frequency band, appropriate for P_n , it was found that an SNR gain of 12 dB could be achieved with optimum plane-wave steering delays. It was also found that even though the array was steered with optimum steering parameters, the signal amplitudes were reduced by the beamforming, due to lack of coherency.

As shown in Fig. 7.6.14, the steering delays (apparent velocity and azimuth) appropriate for the target point, will not be optimum for the rest of the points within the surrounding rectangle. We will in the following consider the "worst case" situation, and account for the maximum signal loss for any points within the rectangle. If we assume that the expected slownesses of all points within the rectangle is identical, which is resonable for P_n and L_g , the mis-steering will primarily be caused by deviating azimuths, as shown in Fig. 7.6.14.

Fig. 7.6.15 illustrate the loss of the maximum STA as a function of missteering, for NORESS and ARCESS P-beams filtered between 3.0 and 5.0 Hz. Information on the events are given in Table 7.6.5. The apparent velocity of each phase is taken from broad-band f-k analysis, the STA length is one second, and the time tolerance is ± 5 seconds. The mis-steering is introduced as azimuth deviations normalized relative to an apparent velocity of 8.0 km/s. Let θ_n denote the azimuth deviation relative to an apparent velocity of 8.0 km/s and let v_p denote the apparent velocity of the incoming wave. If θ_{obs} is the azimuth deviation relative to v_p , we get the following relation:

$$\theta_{obs} = 2\arcsin(\frac{v_p}{8.0}\sin\frac{\theta_n}{2}) \tag{6}$$

Fig. 7.6.15 shows that the signal loss is about 4 dB for a normalized azimuth mis-steering of 20 degrees. I.e., if our grid is constructed in such a way that the maximum allowed azimuth deviation is within 20 degrees (see Fig. 7.6.14), the P_n signal loss at NORESS and ARCESS will be within 4 dB. For arrays with smaller radius (e.g., FINESA), the signal loss will be less.

We have not so far investigated the signal loss due to azimuth mis-steering of the L_g phases. The apparent velocity is lower than for P_n , which indicate higher signal loss, but the lower frequency filter used for L_g (4.5-3.5 Hz versus 3.0-5.0 Hz) works in the opposite direction.

Due to the large regional variations in propagation characteristics, it is usually difficult to predict the apparent velocities, given the coordinates of the target point. Table 7.6.6 gives the estimated apparent velocity of the first arriving P-phase (P_g or P_n) as a function of epicentral distance. These statistics are taken from the IAS data base, and contain both NORESS and ARCESS observations.

Similar statistics on the L_g phase are given in Table 7.6.7. Both tables show a large scatter, illustrating the difficulty in predicting the apparent velocity given the epicentral distance. Another complicating factor is the dispersion of the L_g wave train, implying that the estimates of apparent velocity will be a function of both the frequency band and the positioning of the analysis window.

We have initially not attempted to do any systematic regionalization of the apparent velocity observations. In the mean time, we use an apparent velocity of 8.0 km/s when forming P_n beams steered towards target points more distant that 250 km. At closer distances, we use 6.5 km/s. For L_d beams, an apparent velocity of 4.3 km/s is assumed for target points at all distances. These parameters are currently used for all arrays (NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA).

The signal loss will also be dependent on the array geometry, but this has so far not been studied in connection with mis-steering of the beams. A natural next step will be to evaluate all the effects of beamforming array geometries and mis-steering in the context of threshold monitoring. But in this preliminary study, the signal loss is accounted for by adding a constant term of 0.2 (4 dB) to the observed $\log(STA)$ values for P_n (P_g), and 0.3 (6 dB) to the $\log(STA)$ values for L_g

Magnitude correction factors and variance

We are now in the position to compute the generic relations for the magnitude correction factors, as the other TM variables have been preliminary assessed. Alsaker et~al~(1990), collected a large event data base when estimating formulas for a M_L scale in Norway, and they subsequently computed network averaged M_L estimates for all events. We will in the following use their data base and magnitudes as a basis for computing the generic relations for the magnitude correction factors.

The data base contains observations from 21 different stations (see Fig. 7.6.16), most of which with different instrument response functions. In order to compare the STA values at the respective stations, we need to find a common basis for comparison. As the individual amplitude response functions show only small variations within the relatively narrow passbands considered for P_n and L_g , we can in an approximate way transfer the STA values into units of nm or nm/s simply by multiplying by the displacement or velocity response at the center frequency of the passband, such that

$$\beta T A_{nm} \approx ST A_{qu} \cdot |A_d(\omega_e)|$$
 (7)

where STA_{qn} is the observed STA in quantum units, $|A_d|$ is the displacement amplitude response, and the center frequency $\omega_2 = \sqrt{\omega_1 \omega_2}$ where ω_1 and ω_2 are the low and high cutoffs of the passband. A similar type of equation or n be used

if we instead convert the STA "alues to ground velocity.

In accordance with earlier regression analysis of magnitude relations (Alsaker et al., 1990), we choose the following parameterization:

$$M_i = \log STA_i + C1 + C2 \cdot \log \Delta_i + C3 \cdot \Delta_i \qquad (i = 1, \dots, N)$$
 (8)

where N is the number of observations, M_i is the network magnitude of the event, STA_i is the instrument corrected STA_{nm} and Δ_i is the epicentral distance.

The data base of Alsaker et al (1990) contains 741 observations distributed among 195 events (see Fig. 7.6.17). To ensure good SNR in the P_n and L_g frequency bands, all data were visually inspected. After rejecting data with insufficient SNR or with other data quality problems, 453 observations remained for P_n analysis and 528 for L_g . The STA values were computed using the recipes outlined in the preceding sections, and the results from the regression analyses are given in Table 7.6.8. Estimates of the standard deviation are also given, and show a σ value of 0.19 for L_g . The P_n data show a much larger scatter, and we obtained a σ value of 0.36. Compared to site specific monitoring, these σ estimates are significantly higher, as the typical σ values for site specific monitoring are less than 0.2 for P_n , and less than 0.1 for L_g . If different filters, travel-time models or other parameters were to be used in the TM analysis, new magnitude correction factors would have to be obtained from reanalysis of the calibration events, using the new recipies.

As the TM method computes upper magnitude limits from a cumulative distribution with a given mean and standard deviation, we have the option of balancing the term C1 against the standard deviation σ . This implies that we can reduce σ if C1 is increased. Our philosophy behind the TM computations has been to make conservative estimates of the upper magnitude limits, in order not to overestimate the capabilities. In this way, we can add a constant term to C1 or increase σ if some of the attenuation relations or other underlying parameter estimates of the TM method are considered particularly uncertain.

Discussion

The results presented in this study give us a means of testing the concept of threshold monitoring applied to large geographical regions. It enables us to extend the original "site-specific" threshold monitoring to what we might call "regional threshold monitoring". Using these initial generic relations, Ringdal and Kværna (1991, this issue) have already shown how colour computer displays can be applied to interpret the results from TM analysis. They also indicate new applications of the regional threshold monitoring concept which should be investigated in parallel with improvements of the generic relations.

The data base used for obtaining the magnitude calibration factors consists of

events from Fennoscandia and adjacent areas, making the results representative for this kind of geological environment. If we want to extend the TM analysis to other types of geological regions, exhibiting different wave propagations characteristics, new generic relations have to be found. Another uncertain factor, concerning the current magnitude calibration factors, is the effect of using this particular data base for regression, as the same data base was used for obtaining the M_L scale for Norway (Alsaker ϵt al, 1990).

The effect of signal loss due to mis-steering of the arrays should be more thoroughly investigated. The signal loss is a function of several variables, among others; phase type, signal coherency, frequency, degree of mis steering and array geometry. This also implies that when new arrays, with different array geometries, are introduced in the TM computations, new models for signal loss have to be assessed.

We are also investigating the possibility of using several filter bands when representing the amplitude level of a phase. The current model of a fixed frequency band for P_n and L_2 is clearly not optimal. But in order to make such improvements, new generic relations have to be obtained for a set of different filter bands.

Regionalization of the travel-time models for the maximum amplitude peaks in the wavetrain will optimize the TM computations. The data base of Alsaker et al (1990) contains several recordings at NORESS and ARCESS which can be used to regionalize the travel-time models at these two stations. But for the other stations currently providing digital data to NORSAR (FINESA, GERLSS, Ksiaz and Stary Folwark), a new event data base will have to be collected. If independent network averaged magnitudes can be provided for these events, the generic relations for magnitude calibration can also be improved.

In conclusion, the key for further improvements of the generic relations for regional theshold monitoring is easy access to a large event data base including recordings at all relevant stations. Network locations and network averaged magnitudes should be available for all events. With this at hand, we have the possibility to investigate regional behaviour and the effect of different parameter settings, in order to further improve the performance of regional threshold monitoring.

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	0.250	250-500	500-750	750-1000	1096 1250	1250-1500	1500-1750	1750-2000	Total
1.0~2.0Hz	2		0	is	4	5	1	1 1	36
g 2.0-3.0Hz	153	20-4	24	88	94	59	10	4	1,541
3 0-4 0Hz	245	922	77	221	97	131	21		1721
40.5192	56.2	1991	160	243	. 215	100	13	3 [3317
5 (6-6-0Hz	351	- 450	•51	85	43 -	1 1	1	1	1277
6.057.0Hz	513	523	74	14%	62	5	- 1	1	1277
7.0-8.0Hz	183	1_1	27	21	- -	0	()	O.	650
S 059,0417	367	180	45	29	100	2	u	4.	#1 (h)
: 1 0 10 0Hz	284	1.79	Sec. 1	31	·	1	1	6	361
Total]	2960	1873	524	837	1,27 — ĵ	316	48	17	9884

Table 7.7.1. This table gives an overview of the frequencies with the highest SNR for the first arriving P-phase $(P_n \text{ or } P_q)$. Each element of this table, give the number of observations of the dominant frequency for a given frequency and distance range. The data are taken from routine detection processing of the IAS system, and the statistics cover both NORESS and ARCESS data from the time interval 4990/01/23 to 1991/04/29. All events were below $M_{I}(3.0)$. The frequency band 3.5 Hz found suitable for TM analysis of P_n or P_J data is outlined by two horizontal lines.

1		0.256	250,500	590-750	550 1000	1000 1250	1250-1500	1500 1750	1750 2000	lotai -
0.5	1 5Hz	34	22	9	91	21.	31	0		<u></u>
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2.5	3.5Hz	327] 1595 ;	162	166	34	. 8	1	0	2294
4.5	1 5117	671	142	32	13	11			·· = ;	2130 1
2.456	5.5Hz]	7.33	7.3%	11	4	- 6	2	- 0	n !	1194
5.50	6.5Hz	154	116	(1	ł į	[2 !	! 0	0 1	0	272
S 650	7.5Hz	324	150	-1	U	3	IJ	0	0 8	181
7,1-	8 5Hz	106	25	0	1	t i	0	0	0	132 3
8.50	9.587	148	21	3	0	n	G	0	0	172
9.54	ाष्ट्र भारा	50	20	1	0	0	i ii	0	0	71
1	otal	265.52	10.20	111	1-15	227	77	3		8541

Table 7.7.2. Same as Table 7.7.4, but for the L_2 phase. The frequency band 1.5-3.5Hz found suitable for TM analysis of L_2 data is outlined by two horizontal lines.

Origin time	Lat.	Long.	Distance	M_L	Station	Pn data	L_g data
1990-101:11.51.55.4	62.8	27.6	170.8		FINESA	yes	yes
1990-101:13.46.07.0	60.9	29.3	183.8	-	FINESA	yes	yes
1989-167:11.23.26.0	69.4	30.6	200.0	3.0	ARCESS	yes	yes
1989-076:11.48.53.0	69.4	30.6	200.0	2.9	ARCESS	yes	yes
1990-101:10.21.21.0	59.5	25.0	224.8	-	FINESA	yes	yes
1989-033:18.28.55.0	67.1	20.6	338.5	2.5	ARCESS	yes	yes
1989-059:18.36.45.0	67.1	20.6	338.5	2.5	ARCESS	yes	yes
1989-105:08.50.53.0	68.1	33.2	348.9	2.7	ARCESS	yes	yes
1989-133:08:18.49.0	68.1	33.2	348.9	2.7	ARCESS	yes	yes
1988-258:08.59.58.0	64.7	30.7	584.0	2.9	ARCESS	yes	yes
1988-141:09.54.24.0	59.5	25.0	760.0	2.7	NORESS	no	yes
1989-051:13.19.57.0	59.5	25.0	760.0	2.5	NORESS	no	yes
1989-108:13.41.15.0	59.5	26.5	841.0	2.8	NORESS	no	yes
1988-075:11.52.22.0	61.9	30.6	882.2	2.8	ARCESS	yes	yes
1990-103:10.18.55.0	59.2	28.1	937.0	3.1	NORESS	yes	no
1989-005:10.09.07.0	61.9	30.6	1024.3	2.5	NORESS	no	yes
1988-258:08.59.58.0	64.7	30.7	1069.4	2.9	NORESS	no	yes
1990-103:10.28.41.0	64.6	31.2	1093.7	3.0	NORESS	yes	no
1989-090:12.16.17.0	59.5	26.5	1119.8	3.0	ARCESS	no	yes
1990-103:08.37.08.0	67.6	33.5	1302.7	2.8	NORESS	yes	no
1989-167:11.23.26.0	69.4	30.6	1307.3	3.0	NORESS	no	yes
1989-168:08.59.23.0	68.1	33.2	1314.3	2.9	NORESS	no	yes

Table 7.7.3. Information on the events used for computation of maximum signal amplitudes, denoted $S(\Delta t)$.

Start time	Station
1990-096:22.50.00	NORESS
1990-096:23.00.00	ARCESS
1990-097:14.30.00	NORESS
1990-097:14.30.00	ARCESS
1990-099:09:00:00	NORESS
1990-099:09.00.00	ARCESS

Table 7.7.4. Start times of noise intervals used for assessing average noise characteristics. The length of all intervals were 30 minutes

Origin time	Lat.	Long.	Station	Arrival time	Azimuth	App. vel.	SNR
1991-119:11.25.26.0	56.2	11.5	NORESS	1991-119:11.26.35.9	185.2	8.8	58.8
1991-120:03:40:34:0	51.4	16.2	NORESS	1991-120:03.42,53.4	156.9	8.6	33.0
1991-120:09.19.37.0	67.9	34.3	ARCESS	1991-120:09.20.35.1	120.4	7.8	128.4
1991-120:11.59.23.0	64.6	32.0	ARCESS	1991-120:12.00.45 3	154.3	8.7	54.1
1991 120:12.34.46.0	69.4	31.0	ARCESS	1991-120:12:35 19 7	94.4	7.7	283.4

Table 7.7.5. List events used for the preliminary assessment of signal loss due to mis-steering of the P-beams. The event locations are the automatic network solutions from the generalized beamforming method, see Ringdal and Kværna (1989).

	0-250	250-500	500-750	750-1000	1000-1250	1250-1500	1500-1750	1750-2000	Total
6.0-6.5km/s	194	56	2	2	1	2	0	Ü	257
6.5-7.0km/s	808	485	8	3	2	2	0	ο	1308
7.0-7.5km/s	599	1487	28	27	7	13	0	0	2161
7.5-8.0km/s	482	1479	61	77	62	33	11	1	2206
8.0-8.5km/s	372	664	107	86	171	69	14	4	1487
8.5-9.0km/s	1.40	380	111	122	158	79	10	1	1001
9.0-9.5km/s	32	181	71	107	78	61	-4	1	535
9.5-10.0km/s	13	76	54	99	56	27	-4	-4	333
10.0-10.0km/s	-6	17	24	108	24	12	1	2	194
10.5-11.0km/s	- 6	10	16	95	32	7	2	0	168
11.0-11.0km/s	- 3	- 6	18	47	13	2	i	0	90
11.5-12.0km/s	2	- 6	7	23	к	1	0	2	49
Total	2657	4847	507	7:#5	612	308	47	15	9789

Table 7.7.6. This table give an overview of the estimated apparent velocity of the first arriving P-phase $(P_n \text{ or } P_g)$. Each element of this table, give the number of observations of the apparent velocity for a given apparent velocity and distance range. The data are taken from routine detection processing of the IAS system, and the statistics cover both NORESS and ARCESS data from the time interval 1990/01/23 to 1991/04/29. All events were below M_L 3.0.

	0-250	250-500	500-750	750-1000	1000-1250	1250-1500	1500-1750	1750-2000	Total
2.5-2.8km/s	0	6	0	0	1	ī	0	0	8
2.8-3.1km/s	52	108	18	21	31	5	1	0	236
3.1-3.4km/s	41	446	34	39	59	5	0	о	624
3.4-3.7km/s	154	358	45	66	35	4	0	υ	662
3.7-4.0km/s	616	832	83	168	40	20	1	0	1760
4.0-4.3km/s	913	1335	80	211	25	20	0	0	2584
4.3-4.7km/s	480	883	45	85	20	9	1	0	1523
4.7-5.0km/s	208	434	16	20	8	4	0	υ	690
5.0-5.3km/s	112	165	10	4	4	2	0	0	297
5.3-5.5km/s	58	36	5	0	2	-0	0	0	101
Total	2634	4603	336	614	225	70	3	0	8485

Table 7.7.7. Same as Table 7.7.6, but for the L_g phase.

Phase	C1	C2	C'3	a	nobs
P_n, P_g	-1.5737	1.4236	0.6819E-03	0.355	453
L_{j}	√0.9537	0.8292	1.3188E-03	0.192	528

Table 7.7.8. Results from regression analysis of the data used by Alsaker ϵt al (1990). The regression coefficients and the σ values for P_n (P_g) and L_g were obtained from processing the data with the TM recipies outlined in the preceding sections.

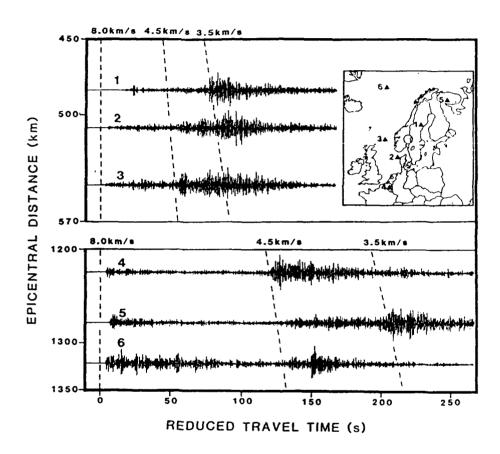


Fig. 7.7.1. Illustration of variation of relative importance of the phases S_n and L_g . The standard group velocities of 4.5 and 3.5 km/s, commonly assigned to S_n and L_g , respectively, are marked by dashed lines. The upper three traces cover the distance interval 480-550 km, while the three lower traces correspond to epicentral distances in the range 1225-1320 km. The location of the NORSAR array is denoted by a ring on the map, and the traces are from the NORSAR seismometer 02B01. The data are bandpass filtered 1 to 5 Hz. The reduction velocity is 8.0 km/sec.

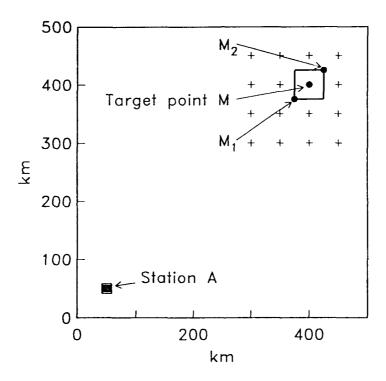


Fig. 7.7.2. This figure illustrates the necessity of using time tolerances. The plus signs indicate target points, and a rectangle surrounding one of the target points (M) is also given. The point within the rectangle with the minimum travel-time is denoted M_1 , whereas the point with the maximum travel-time is denoted M_2 .

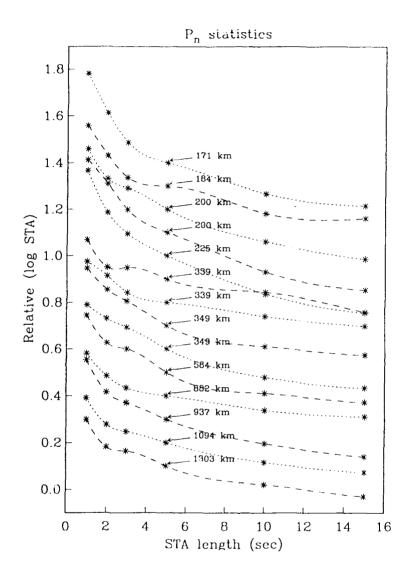


Fig. 7.7.3. The asterisks of this figure show observations of maximum $\log(STA)$ (denoted $S(\Delta t)$) for P_n for a set of STA lengths. The observations corresponding to the same phase are interpolated by dashed or dotted lines, and the epicentral distance of each event is indicated. Information on the events are given in Table 7.7.3. For display purposes an offset was added to each of the curves, as the absolute scale is without any significance. Note the difference in the slopes for events above and below 300 km epicentral distance.

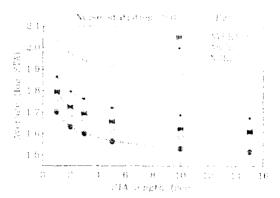


Fig. 7.7.4. Using data from the center instrument A0 of both the NORFSS and the ARCESS array, this figure shows the average of $\log(STA)$ under noise conditions (denoted $\overline{A}(\Delta t)$) for a set of STA lengths. The data were filtered in the passband 3-5 Hz and a time tolerance of ±5 seconds was used. Information on the data intervals is given in Table 7.7.4. The average of the six noise observations, used for subsequent analysis of noise damping, is indicated by filled squares and a solid line.

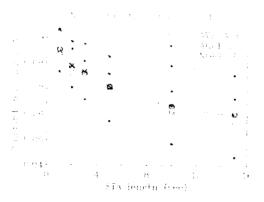


Fig. 7.7.5. This figure gives the standard deviation of the noise observations analyzed in Fig. 7.7.4. The average of the standard deviation curves, used for subsequent analysis of noise lamping, is indicated by filled squares and a solid line.

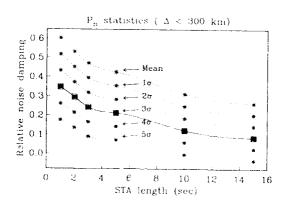


Fig. 7.7.6. The relative noise damping given in this figure is computed from average P_n signal behavior for events within 300 km epicentral distance (taken from Fig. 7.7.3), average noise conditions (taken from Fig. 7.7.4) and average values of noise standard deviation (taken from Fig. 7.7.5). The relative noise damping for a set of confidence levels is shown and the 3σ level used to characterize a "worst case" situation is given by filled squares and a solid line.

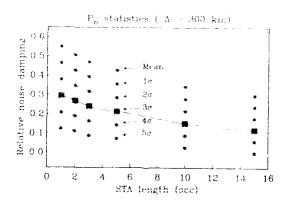


Fig. 7.7.7. Same a Fig. 7.7.6, but representing events with epicentral distances exceeding 300 km.

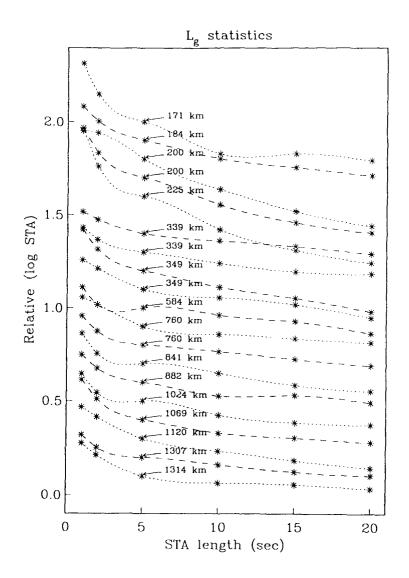


Fig. 7.7.8. The asterisks of this figure show observations of maximum $\log(STA)$ (denoted $S(\Delta t)$) for L_g for a set of STA lengths. The observations corresponding to the same phase are interpolated by dashed or dotted lines, and the epicentral distance of each event are indicated. Information on the events is given in Table 7.7.3. For display purposes an offset was added to each of the curves, as the absolute scale is without any significance. Note the difference in the slopes for events above and below 300 km epicentral distance.

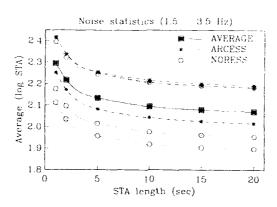


Fig. 7.7.9. Same a Fig. 7.7.4, but the noise intervals were analyzed in the $1.5 \cdot 3.5$ Hz filter band.

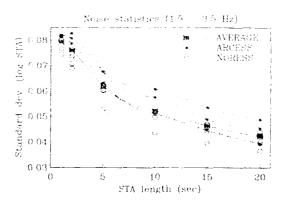


Fig. 7.7.10. This figure gives the standard deviation of the noise observations analyzed in Fig. 7.7.9. The average of the standard deviation curves, used for subsequent analysis of noise damping is indicated by filled squares and a solid line

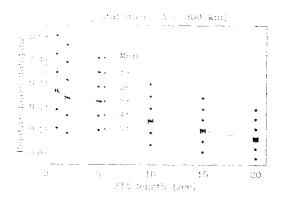


Fig. 7.7.11. The relative noise damping given in this figure is computed from average L_{τ} signal behaviour for events within 300 km epicentral distance (taken from Fig. 7.7.8), average noise conditions (taken from Fig. 7.7.9) and average values of noise standard deviation (taken from Fig. 7.7.10). The relative noise damping for a set of confidence levels is shown and the 3σ level used to characterize a "worst case" situation is given by filled squares and a solid line.

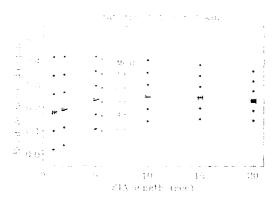


Fig. 7.7.12. Same a Fig. 7.7.11, but representing events with epicentral distances exceeding 300 km $\,$

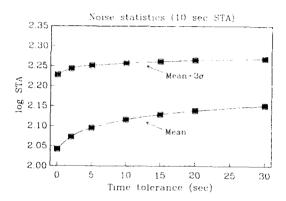


Fig. 7.7.13. This figure gives the mean of $\log(STA)$ together with the mean+ 3σ level for a set of time tolerances. The first noise segment of Table 7.7.4 was bandpass filtered between 1.5 and 3.5 Hz, and the estimates were obtained using an STA length of 10 seconds.

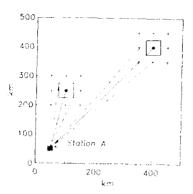


Fig. 7.7.14. In order to monitor a finite area surrounding each of the target points, a mis-steering in azimuth is introduced when the beams are steered towards the target points. This figure illustrates this for two target points at different distances. The azimuth deviations are indicated by dashed lines. Also note that for a fixed grid spacing, the mis-steering is a function of distance to the target points.

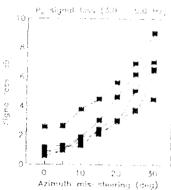


Fig. 7.7.15. The filled squares of this figure give the estimated signal loss for P_n a a function of azimuth mis steering. Observations corresponding to the same phase are interpolated by dashed lines and information on the P-phases are given in Table 7.7.5. For a circular array, it is common to map the signal loss as a function of deviations in horizontal slowness. We have therefore computed signal losses as a function of azimuth, where the azimuth deviations are normalized to provide equal deviations in horizontal slowness. The x-axis of this plot is given as normalized azimuth deviations relative to an apparent velocity of 8.0 km/s.

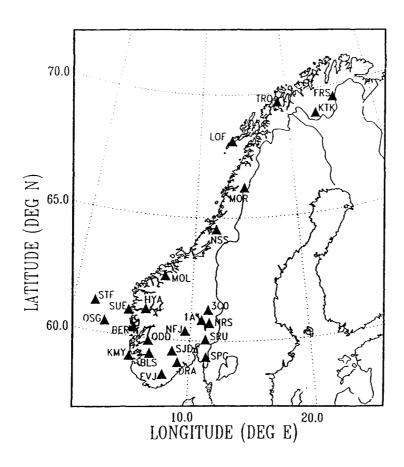


Fig. 7.7.16. Recording stations providing data for regression analysis. Adapted from Alsaker ϵt al (1990).

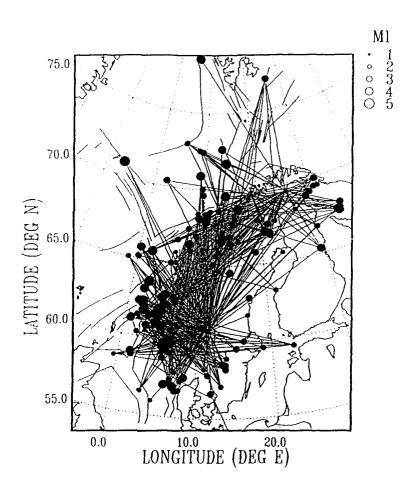


Fig. 7.7.17. Recordings selected by Alsaker et~al~(1990) for estimation of an M_L scale for Norway. Applying regression analysis, a subset of these recordings was weed for obtaining generic relations for the magnitude correction factors. Adapted from Alsaker et~al. 1990.

7.8 Continuous threshold monitoring using "regional threshold displays"

Introduction

Continuous threshold monitoring (Ringdal and Kværna, 1989) is a method of monitoring seismic amplitude levels for the purpose of assessing the largest size of events in a given target region that might go undetected by a monitoring network. The method has recently been implemented within the Intelligent Monitoring System (IMS) (Bache et al, 1990). In previous Semiannual Technical Summaries, as well as in the present issue, several examples of application have been presented. In particular, Kværna and Ringdal (1990) conducted a one-week monitoring experiment of the Novaya Zemlya test site using the Fennoscandian regional array network, and concluded that continuous threshold monitoring down to event size as low as $m_b = 2.5$ appeared feasible for this site.

Regional threshold monitoring

In the current IMS implementation of the TM technique, a limited number of specific target sites are monitored. These sites include several mines in Scandinavia and Western Russia, along with the Novaya Zemlya and Semipalatinsk nuclear test sites. For each of these sites, a number of calibration events are available, and thus it has been possible to fine tune the parameters in order to obtain close to optimum monitoring performance.

"Regional threshold monitoring" is defined as an extension of the original "site-specific" threshold monitoring concept. It entails using the same basic principles to obtain wide geographical coverage, including coverage of regions for which no calibration events are available. The key to achieving this is to develop "generic" relations for attenuation and magnitude corrections of seismic phases of interest, and to deploy a sufficient number of beams to ensure adequate geographical coverage.

Kværna (1991, this issue) has developed initial such generic relations for the Pn and Lg phases of NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA. His relations are applicable to Northern Europe and adjacent regions, and are based on a systematic analysis of several hundred phase observations of regional events in various geographical areas. Kværna's results form the basis for the study presented in this paper.

Threshold maps

The regional threshold monitoring approach lends itself naturally to displays in the form of contoured geographical maps. By using a spatial grid covering the area of interest, interpolation can be applied to get a visual representation of threshold variations over an extended geographical region, and examples will be given later.

These contour maps are in many ways similar to the standard network capability maps traditionally used in seismic monitoring studies (Networth, Snap/D, etc.). However, there are some fundamental differences:

- Standard capability maps use as a basis statistical models of signal and noise characteristics; in particular a signal variance and a noise variance is assumed to compensate for statistical fluctuations. In contrast, the regional TM maps give "snapshots" of the capability as actually observed at a given point in time.
- With standard maps, no allowance is made for unusual conditions, such as, e.g., the occurrence of a large earthquake or an aftershock sequence which may cause the network capability to deteriorate for hours. With the TM approach, the actual variation in detection capability is immediately apparent.
- Standard capability maps require assumptions, e.g., with regard to "SNR threshold required for detection" and "minimum number of stations required to locate". The TM maps require no such assumptions since they are not tied to "detecting and locating" seismic events, but rather describe directly the observed "seismic field" at any point in time.

We will briefly comment further on the last item mentioned above: The requirement of multistation detection with the standard method will sometimes result in unrealistically high thresholds, e.g., in areas near a station of the monitoring network. The multistation requirement also implies that the method is not able to adequately represent the possibility of particularly favorable source station paths. A case in point is the outstanding capability of the NORESS array in detecting explosions at Shagan River. Thus, if NORESS has no detection, it is highly unlikely that any explosion at that site of $m_b > 3$ has occurred, whereas a capability map based on 4-station detection requirement may well show a threshold an order of magnitude higher.

The threshold monitoring approach will avoid these inconsistencies. Thus, under normal noise conditions, the thresholds will be very low within a few hundred km of each network station. Furthermore, since the TM thresholds are dominated by the "best" station of the network, particularly favorable source/receiver paths may be accommodated, although this would require a combination of regional and site-specific monitoring.

Display examples

Using the generic relations developed by Kværna (1991), we computed a threshold monitoring grid of 20 x 20 geographical aiming points for a 40-minute time interval. Data from the three arrays NORESS, ARCESS and FINESA were used. Contouring maps were developed by interpolation in this grid, and

displayed in the form of color maps where the color scale is tied to the actual threshold

Figs. 7.8.1 and 7.8.2 show two representative examples of output from this procedure.

Fig. 7.8.1 shows the "absolute" TM threshold levels (with m_b units indicated on the color template) at a specific time during a typically "quiet" period (i.e., no seismic event occurring). We note that the areas immediately surrounding each array (deep or light blue) show the lowest thresholds (below $m_b = 0.5$), whereas most of the remaining area at regional distances has a green color, indicating thresholds in the range $m_b = 0.5$ –1.5. The yellow color seen further away from the network stations indicates thresholds of 1.5 to 2.5.

Fig. 7.8.2 shows a typical map at a time corresponding to a mining explosion (magnitude 2.2) at the Apatity mine in the Kola Peninsula. In contrast to Fig. 7.8.1, we have here chosen to display relative thresholds (i.e., thresholds relative to the average thresholds during noise conditions at each geographical point). This is done to emphasize more clearly the effects of the seismic event in causing threshold increases outside the source area. We note that, naturally, the area surrounding the mining site has the highest relative threshold (red), whereas the "side lobe" effect causes significant threshold increase also in other regions, some of which quite far apart from the mine.

The computer displays shown in Figs. 7.8.1 and 7.8.2 also include fields for displaying threshold traces and selecting various plotting options. At the present time, however, these features have not been operationally implemented.

Perspectives

We consider that the regional approach to threshold monitoring would imply a significant enhancement of practical monitoring of underground nuclear explosions. In particular, a graphics display system could be developed to provide the analyst with very useful interactive tools. Among features that might be desirable are:

- "Snapshots" of regional threshold maps taken at times when a peak occurs on a threshold monitoring trace. For example, if a peak is observed on the threshold trace used to monitor Novaya Zemlya, such a snapshot could immediately reveal that this peak might, e.g., be a side lobe effect from a remote earthquake.
- Threshold displays taken during the coda of very large earthquakes, indicating the resulting effects on detectability in various regions.
- "Cumulative" displays showing the largest possible events that might have occurred during a given time period (e.g., 24 hours).

Combinations of threshold displays and conventional epicenter maps of detected events.

An extremely interesting application would be a real time "video" display of how the threshold situation fluctuates with time. When a seismic event occurs, a real time display of this type would illustrate how the threshold first increases at "side lobe" locations, with subsequent focusing upon the actual epicentral area. Such a video option could of course just as easily be implemented for off-line (retroactive) display of time periods of interest.

In order to make effective use of the regional threshold monitoring approach and the associated display options, a workstation with powerful computational and graphical ϵ qualities will be required, and we are currently evaluating possibilities in this regard. We are also continuing our research aimed at integrating the "regional" and "site-specific" threshold monitoring methods, which we consider to have a comfined potential of becoming a basic tool in practical monitoring applications.

F. Ringdal

T. Kværna

Acknowledgement: The prototype interactive regional threshold monitoring display which forms the basis for the illustrations in this paper has been developed by Rolf M. A. sen of NORSAR, using the "NOGRA" graphics software system.

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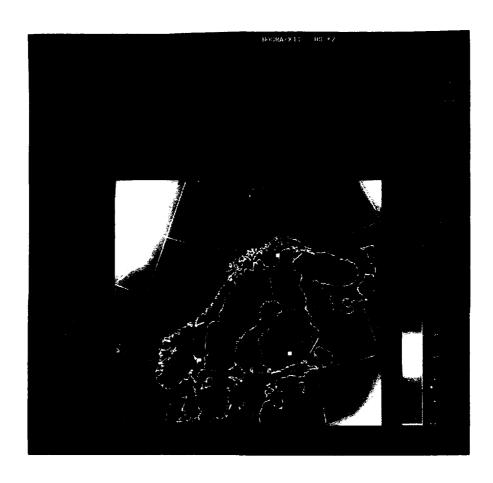


Fig. 7.8.1. Example of regional threshold display of "absolute" threshold levels, at a typical "quiet" period. See text for detailed explanation.



Fig. 7.8.2. Example of regional threshold display of "relative" threshold levels at a time when a mining explosion occurred in the Kola Peninsula. See text for detailed information.